

School of Education

**An Investigation of Teacher-trainers' Perceptions of Indonesian
English, Proficiency in English, and Training Practices in West Sumatra,
Indonesia**

Sri Imelwaty

**This Thesis is presented for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
of
Curtin University**

April 2014

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'A. Ahmed', written over a horizontal line.

Date:

17-10-2014

Acknowledgement

First of all, I am grateful to The Almighty God for giving me the strength and health to complete this study. I would like to express the deepest appreciation to the individuals and institutions for assistance with this thesis. I wish to express my sincere thanks to Professor Graham Dellar, my supervisor, for convincingly conveying a spirit of adventure in research and teaching. I would like to thank my co-supervisor Dr. Judith Rochecouste for her constructive feedback during the writing process and to associate supervisor Dr. Susan McDonald. Without their guidance and help, this dissertation would not have been possible. My special thanks for Dr. Anna Alderson for her time and efforts to refine my English and to Associate Professor Kay O'Halloran for introducing me to the Multimodal analysis video software. I also place on record, my sincere gratitude to Dr. Christopher Conlan and Associate Professor Katie Dunworth for their assistance in the early stages of this research and during the process of writing this thesis.

I would like to thank my scholarship sponsor, DIKTI, my Teachers' College STKIP PGRI Padang Sumbar Indonesia, the Head of School Education, Professor Lina Pellicione, and the Office of Research and Development of Curtin University for their support for my study. I also would like to express my gratitude to all of the participants and the respondents to the questionnaire survey for their participation in this study. My thanks are extended to Laily Martin, Tienn Immerly, Herry Nur Hidayat, and others who assisted me in the data collection process.

I take this opportunity to express my special thanks to three wonderful people in my life: my husband Satya Budhi who I am extremely grateful to have, for his continuing support of my career, and my two gorgeous daughters Debbie Satyawaty and Ulimaz (Lily) Satyawati for their understanding of what I have been through. Last but not the least, my sincere gratitude to my loved and respected parents, Zaini Raden and Lusmi Ayub for their love, support and prayers for me and my family.

Preface

I first encountered the English language when my father bought a television for our family during the late seventies. Watching English language cartoons without subtitles at that time kindled my ambition to be able to speak English when I grew up. I learnt English for years and finally became a teacher of English which I loved it very much. I started teaching English to young learners, then high school students and tertiary students, and I end up becoming a teacher-trainer for teachers of English in Indonesia. Inevitably, English is a fundamental part of my life.

My lived experience in teaching English to Indonesians inspired me to know more about this area. I have heard my colleagues and students complaining that English is difficult. A great deal of effort and resources have been expended on teaching and learning English but there is no ‘magic pill’. Instead it requires ‘blood, sweat and tears’ to become proficient in English. This had left me with a question: Are we there yet? I was curious to explore this phenomenon, particularly in the English language teaching in Indonesian context. I do hope that whatever I have found from ‘this journey’ can add more ‘colour’ to English language teaching in my country.

Abstract

English has become an important language in Indonesian life for a range of reasons such as education, science and technology, the media, industry, international trade, politics and diplomacy. Consequently, there are many Indonesians who want to be proficient in English. The notion of language proficiency, particularly English proficiency, has been a debated for years amongst linguists and language practitioners. In the context of English language education, different perspectives have also led to various interpretations of this notion. Defining the definition of this notion has become more complicated due to the development of World Englishes.

This study has investigated teacher-trainers' perceptions of the construct 'proficiency in English', and the manifestation of these perceptions in teacher training practice. The study seeks to measure the degree of fit between perception and practice to inform English language teaching pedagogy, and to contribute to the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English. The research was conducted at Teacher Colleges and Universities which operate English Teacher Training Programs in West Sumatra province, Indonesia. A sequential mixed method research design underpinned the study thus enabling the construct of 'proficiency in English' to be looked at from different perspectives. A small number of teacher-trainers were firstly interviewed to inform the design of the questionnaire for a large cohort of participants. The interview and questionnaire instruments were contextually and sequentially designed through pilot trials. Classroom observations of 12 classes (twelve hours) were undertaken to identify the manifestation of these perceptions in training practice.

The interview data from a small number of teacher-trainers showed numerous descriptions of 'proficiency in English'. Qualitative content analysis of the interview data showed that a range of attributes were embodied in 'proficiency in English'. Based on the findings of the interview data, a proposed model of 'proficiency in English' was established comprising exonormative and endonormative constructs. This model embraces a combination of structural knowledge of English language on the one hand and communicative skills in the other. Findings from a further larger cohort of teacher-trainers supported the notion of using exonormative constructs in academic contexts. Endonormative constructs were deemed only feasible for informal situations and appropriate in cross-cultural communication. However, the findings of the teacher-trainers' classroom practice observations revealed that teacher-trainers vary in their manifestations of the proposed constructs.

This study is significant because its findings can be used to inform the development of a framework for English language teaching in the Indonesian context and to guide curriculum planning and pedagogy that might enhance the English language proficiency of the English users in Indonesia. The outcomes of the research are particularly beneficial for English language teacher educators and policymakers in re-conceptualizing English language teacher education programs in Indonesia. Consequently, the overall findings can be used to inform English language teaching pedagogy in the Indonesian context with respect to the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English, the feasibility of which is currently under debate.

Table of Content

Declaration.....	i
Acknowledgment.....	ii
Preface.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Table of Content	v
List of Figure	viii
List of Tables	ix
 CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	 1
1.1 Background and Context of the Study.....	1
1.1.1 Teaching English and Teachers of English in the West Sumatra province Indonesia.....	6
1.2 Purpose of the Study.....	7
1.3 Significant of the Study.....	8
1.4 Research Questions.....	9
1.5 Limitations of the Study.....	9
1.6 Organisation of the Thesis.....	10
1.7 Definition of Key Terms.....	11
 CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	 12
2.1 Perspectives on Language Proficiency.....	12
2.1.1 Structuralism and Chomsky's Notions of 'Competence' and 'Performance'.....	13
2.1.2 Functionalism and the Construct of 'Proficiency'.....	15
2.1.3 Formalism and the Construct of 'Correctness' in Language Proficiency.....	17
2.2 Problems with the Construct 'Proficiency in English'.....	19
2.2.1 L1 English Proficiency vs. Non-L1 English Proficiency.....	19
2.2.2 Standard English Perspective vs. World Englishes Perspective.....	20
2.2.3 Selecting an 'Appropriate' Model in Outer and Expanding Circles Countries.....	23
2.3 English Proficiency and English Language Teaching Practices in Indonesia.....	25
2.3.1 English Language Teaching in Indonesia.....	26
2.3.2 English Language Teacher Training in Indonesia.....	28
2.4 Relationships between Language Teacher Perceptions and Their Practices.....	29
2.4.1 Perceptions and Personal Constructs.....	30
2.4.2 Teacher's Technical and Practical Knowledge in Classroom Practices	31
2.4.3 Language Teacher Cognition.....	33
2.4.4 Empirical Studies on Language Teachers' Cognition in Indonesia.....	33

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY.....	36
3.1 Research Approach.....	37
3.2 Phase One of the Research Process.....	40
3.2.1 Development of the Interview Protocol.....	41
3.2.2 Interview Data Collection.....	46
3.2.3 Sampling Frame.....	46
3.2.4 Interview Data Analysis.....	47
3.2.5 Development of the Questionnaire.....	49
3.2.6 Respondents.....	50
3.2.7 Questionnaire Data Analysis.....	51
3.3 Phase Two of the Research Process.....	51
3.3.1 Selection of the Observation Data and Their Analysis.....	53
3.4 Establishing of the Degree of Fit between Findings of Phase One and Phase Two.....	56
3.5 Summary.....	57
CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS OF PHASE ONE.....	58
4.1 Findings from the Interview Data.....	58
4.1.1 Proficiency Involves Exonormative ‘Competence’.....	59
4.1.2 Proficiency Involves Endonormative ‘Competence’.....	62
4.2 Proposed Model of ‘Proficiency in English’.....	67
4.3 Findings from the Questionnaire Data Analysis.....	69
4.4 Conclusion.....	77
CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS OF PHASE TWO.....	79
5.1 Manifestation of the Themes and the Attributes of ‘Competence’ of the Construct ‘Proficiency in English’.....	80
5.2 Manifestation of the Themes and the Attributes of ‘Performance’ of the Construct ‘Proficiency in English’.....	84
5.3 Summary of the Key Findings of Phase Two.....	93
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS	94
6.1 Teacher-trainers’ Perceptions of ‘Proficiency in English’ and Their Classroom Practices in the Indonesian Context.....	94
6.1.2 Teacher-trainers’ Conceptual Frameworks of ‘Proficiency in English’.....	95
6.1.3 Constraints on the Teacher-trainers’ Conceptual Understanding of ‘Proficiency in English’.....	98
6.1.4 Teacher-trainers’ Training Practices.....	101
6.2 Constraints on Teacher-trainers Classroom Practices.....	102
6.2.1 Implications for English Language Teaching Pedagogy and for the Development of a Distinctly Indonesian Variety of English.....	103
6.2.2 Enhancing the Effectiveness of Teacher-trainers’ Classroom Practice.....	106
6.2.3 Development of a Distinctly Indonesian Variety of English.....	107

CHAPTER 7 RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH..... 109

7.1 Recommendations..... 109

7.2 Future Research..... 111

REFERENCES..... 112

APPENDICES..... 126

Appendix 1..... 126

Appendix 2..... 130

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	The Schematic Diagram of the Overall Research Process.....	39
Figure 2	The Process of Analysing Interview Data.....	48
Figure 3	Coding System informed by Wells (2005).....	54
Figure 4	The Display of Multimodal Analysis Video Software.....	55
Figure 5	Respondents by the Length of Experience as Teacher-trainers.....	69
Figure 6	The Respondents' Highest Level of Educational Qualifications.....	70
Figure 7	Coding System (informed by Wells. 2005).....	79
Figure 8a	Written Demonstration of Exonormative Comparative Forms.....	84
Figure 8b	Written Demonstration of Exonormative Comparative Forms.....	84
Figure 9	Written Demonstration of Exonormative Adjectival Clauses.....	85
Figure 10	Exonormative Forms in Teacher-trainer's Presentation.....	85

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	The Elements of Repertory Grid Technique Used in the Worksheet	43
Table 2	Themes and Attributes of the Construct ‘Proficiency in English’...	68
Table 3a	Responses Relating to the Knowledge Involves in ‘Proficiency in English’	71
Table 3b	Responses on What Constitutes Knowledge of English.....	71
Table 4a	Responses Relating to Exonormative Usage.....	72
Table 4b	Responses Relating to Exonormative and Usage (cont.).....	72
Table 5a	Response to the Use of English in Formal and Informal Contexts...	73
Table 5b	Response to the Use of English in Formal and Informal Contexts (cont.).....	73
Table 6a	Responses to the Need to Communicate Across Cultures.....	74
Table 6b	Response to the Need to Communicate Across Cultures (cont.).....	74
Table 7a	Response to the Need for Intelligibility in the Construct of Proficiency.....	75
Table 7b	Response to the Attribute of Intelligibility.....	75
Table 8a	Knowledge of L2 English Speakers’ Identities as an Attribute of Proficiency.....	76
Table 8b	Knowledge and Use of L2 English Speakers’ Identities as an Attribute of Proficiency (cont.).....	76
Table 9	Percentage of Class Time Devoted to Attributes of ‘Competence’..	80
Table 10	The Language Used by the Teacher-trainers.....	86
Table 11	Description of the Teacher-trainers Local Accent.....	88

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with an elaboration of the issues which form the background and context of this study. It includes the purpose and significance of the study, the research questions, research design, as well as definitions of major concepts and terms. The organization of the thesis is also presented.

1.1 Background and Context of the Study

The notion of ‘English language proficiency’ as a learning outcome in a second language context has engaged the interest of teachers, administrators, curriculum developers, test constructors, researchers, parents and students for several decades now. The framing of ‘proficiency’ as a language learning outcome is required not only by language educators, but also by English language learners. However, any framework for ‘proficiency in English’ for non-L1 users is still questioned and debated by academics and linguists. Therefore no current consensus on this framework can be identified due to the different perspectives and theoretical orientations held by English language educators.

The construct of ‘English language proficiency’ is complex, not only as to how well the language is used, but also given the variety of Englishes around the world. Confusion remains amongst English educators about what English norms to teach. Studies in sociolinguistics have also shown that English nowadays is not a single variety, leading to such terms as ‘World Englishes’. This complexity increases as World English researchers have proposed the plurality of English (Kachru, Yamuna & Nelson, 2009). Thus, English language learners and users are currently able to choose which norms to use for their reference point.

In Indonesia, English language proficiency is in high demand. To achieve this state, Indonesians are being taught English in schools, universities and in other non-formal institutions. It is often assumed the English which is taught and learnt is an exonormative model of the major English varieties such as British or American English (Lauder, 2008, p.15). However, different variants have entered the model of

English in Indonesia given that many students are studying in Malaysia, Singapore, Australia, and elsewhere. In addition, there are many foreign teachers from Malaysia, Singapore, and the Philippines who have been recruited to teach English and other subjects at international and bilingual schools and universities in Indonesia, and whose first language is not English (Siregar, 2010, p.71).

Therefore teachers of English in Indonesian cannot be assumed to be using American or British English, in spite of the belief that the exonormative model is being taught in the Indonesian educational context. Additionally, Alip (2004, p.1) argues that the English of the Indonesian speaker is also influenced by the Indonesian language linguistically and culturally, so Indonesians will not speak and use English as their counterparts in English speaking countries.

Nonetheless, the claim that Indonesian English is a variety of English needs further research. Currently, there is a lack of linguistic evidence about Indonesian English, so it is understandable that its feasibility is under debate amongst linguists. It may be more appropriate to state that Indonesian English is an emerging variety and possibly on its way to being classified as one of the varieties of English, i.e., the development of Indonesian English has begun.

Indonesian English language users are comparable to many others living in Asian countries. Most are bilingual or even multilingual. As Bolton (2008, p.11) explains, in many Asian contexts, individual language learning takes place in complex multilingual and functionally different settings. This means that English language teachers in Asia face the challenge of students using a code which accords with their context. In this situation, meeting the expected L1 English proficiency is the biggest challenge for English language learners in Asia. Therefore, in the Indonesian context, it is necessary to establish what level of proficiency in English should be achievable. This raises the question of what 'proficiency' means in the Indonesian context.

Indonesia is the fourth largest nation in the world with a land mass equating to 1,919,440 square kilometres or 735,355 square miles. Its population in 2014 is estimated to be 253 million (<http://www.worldpopulationreview.com>). It has a large number of ethnic groups with different cultural backgrounds and languages resulting

in hundreds of heritage languages. While there are more than 500 significant language groups spread over 3000 islands, it is estimated that Indonesians actually have 737 “living languages” (Gordon, 2005). Indonesian or *Bahasa Indonesia*, which originated from Malay, was chosen as the national language in 1928 by the Indonesian nationalist movement (Quinn, 2001).

To classify broadly the languages that are used in Indonesia, Darjowidjoyo (2000) identifies the national language, regional languages, and foreign languages. Most Indonesians are bilingual, others are multilingual, but a number of those who live in cities speak only the national language. Many in regional areas speak *Bahasa Indonesia* as their second language - and a vernacular as their mother tongue. In general regional languages are still used at informal levels and *Bahasa Indonesia* is consistently used in more formal situations and at institutional levels.

Bahasa Indonesia is used for a number of purposes. Quinn (2001) describes how this language is used as a medium of instructions in all educational institutions; by the media; in politics, business and administration; and in modern literature. These functions indicate that *Bahasa Indonesia* is able to bring together people from a range of different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. However, this language does not fully meet the needs of Indonesians in the modern world with the need to communicate internationally. Indonesians need the English language to accommodate this need.

After Indonesian independence in 1945, English was chosen as the main foreign language to be taught or spoken in Indonesia (Alip, 2004, p.6). Lauder (2008, p.9-10) asserts that English was chosen due to its international status. Furthermore, he claims that English has played an important role in Indonesian society at large, especially in business, politics, education and the media (Lauder, 2008, p.10). For example, the media, including television and radio, bring spoken English into Indonesian homes even in remote areas. In tertiary institutions, the need for English is fundamental for access to recently published materials in print and online. Additionally, in modern businesses involved in international transactions, English is widely used.

It is therefore unavoidable that English is required by Indonesians. Lauder (2008, p.12) notes that commentators on the use of English in Indonesia, such as Dardjowidjojo (2003d, p.32), Huda (2000, p.65-66), Renandya (2000, p.116) and Simatupang (1999, p.64) have seen English as potentially serving a number of important purposes namely: as a means to international communication in practically all fields; as a medium through which scientific knowledge and new technologies can be accessed and implemented with a view to succeeding in the global market place; as a source of vocabulary for the development and modernization of Indonesia; as a way to better understanding L1 English speakers, their language, culture and literature; and as a means of expanding individuals' intellectual horizons. Based on these conceptualizations, it is understandable that English plays an important role in Indonesian life.

As previously described, English is recognized as “a key to social and economic advancement” (Lamb & Coleman, 2008, p. 193). This means that English can be used to enhance the wellbeing of the Indonesian population. Consequently, English is being used increasingly by Indonesian people in a variety of walks of life. Nonetheless there are other foreign languages learnt by Indonesians such as Arabic, Mandarin, Japanese, and Dutch. Dutch is taught at university level in law schools and history departments. Arabic is taught in modern and traditional Islamic schools for religious purposes. The need for studying oriental languages such as Japanese, Mandarin, and Korean has recently increased because of growing trade with other Asian countries. English, however, remains as the most popular foreign language since independence from the Dutch.

To be proficient in English is considered necessary in many aspects of life in Indonesia and particularly for people in the larger cities. For example, in order to secure good employment such as an office manager or administrator, many institutions and companies prefer applicants who are proficient in English. The high value that is placed on English language proficiency can be seen in the many job advertisements in the national newspapers that state proficiency in English as a requirement (Lamb & Coleman, 2008, p.193). Proficiency in English therefore has become a gate-keeper to ensuring the quality of Indonesian human resources.

However, English is not as widely used as *Bahasa Indonesia* in the formal official language for government, the law courts, and the education system. Moreover, English does not have special status in the country's language legislation, though it is considered as the most important foreign language to be taught (Simatupang, 1999, p. 63). In other words, while English is not used in all communicative situations, it has a special place in the Indonesian education system. However, as Lauder (2008, p. 13) explains, while English has been sanctioned in policy by positioning it as the first foreign language to be taught in secondary schools, some Indonesian educators have concerns that English will bring with it liberal western values which will have an impact on local cultures (Lauder, 2008, p.13). Kartono (1976, p 124) describes this emotional attitude as a manifestation of a "love-hate view" of English or "language schizophrenia". This conflicting condition often creates a tension between two orientations: the need for English for the development of Indonesia, and the maintenance of Indonesian culture.

Despite this, many Indonesians continue to use English in many linguistic environments. Widiati and Cahyono (2006, p.276) describe the use of English as a means of communication with the academic world of scholars and as a tool for management in banking and government. In addition, English is also commonly used in university seminars by scholars and university students. It is also used by middle-level workers in the workplace, by radio announcers, television presenters, tour guides, and by hotel staff.

Nevertheless, in such situations, it is obvious that this use of English is frequently a form of code-mixing and code-switching between Indonesian and English, especially when the communication is amongst Indonesian themselves. According to Kaufman and Aranoff (1991, p. 175), code mixing occurs when linguistic units such as words, phrases, and clauses are used alongside similar units of another language within one sentence. Code-switching is defined by Poplack (2000, p.224) as the "alternative of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent". This phenomenon commonly occurs in bilingual or multilingual communities. Tian and Macaro (2012, p. 369) assert that research evidence indicates that code switching is a sign of those bilinguals who have exceptional control of two or more languages.

In the Indonesian context, the practice of code mixing English is described by Renandya (2000, p.116) as the habit of mixing English and Indonesian. This habit is maintained by many prominent persons in society and by educated Indonesians whether consciously or unconsciously. Code-switching in Indonesia has also been described by Murniati (2004) as “a prestige marker of upper class society” (p.127).

To conclude, English is widely used in Indonesia and is seen as an important tool in the development of the country. The demand for proficient English speakers continues to increase along with the need for English teachers. However, there remains no consensus on what ‘proficiency in English’ means amongst English language educators in Indonesia and the prevalence of a range of English varieties has generated considerable complexity in establishing any consistent understanding of ‘proficiency in English’ in this context. Research to explore these issues in the Indonesian context specifically is therefore urgently needed for the ongoing development of human resources and infrastructure in this country.

1.1.1 Teaching English and Teachers of English in the West Sumatra Province Indonesia

The province of West Sumatra in Indonesia was chosen as the site for this study because of its educational potential. This area lies on the west coast of the island of Sumatra and is where the educational sector has developed rapidly. With a population of around 5 million people as of the 2010 census (<http://www.bps.go.id>), it is a province where tertiary education is well established. There are some 80 tertiary educational institutions across this province. Asnan (2007, p.37) describes this province as having established a significant number of high schools and tertiary institutions since Indonesian independence in 1945. The success of education in this province is evidence of the enthusiasm amongst the younger generation to pursue higher education.

As in other provinces across Indonesia, students learn English as a compulsory subject in their educational institutions. In West Sumatra, English programs are not only provided for students in tertiary institutions, high schools, but primary schools have also started intensive English language programs. Even private educational

institutions in this province offer English, starting with pre-primary school children and promoting the idea of ‘the earlier the better’. Non-formal educational institutions in this area have also developed in providing courses for learning English by promising English proficiency for learners of the formal primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions.

As a result, the demand for teachers of English at formal and non-formal educational institutions and as private English tutors has increased along with the popularity of English. It is understandable therefore that enrolments in English teacher training programs and colleges and universities have also increased to meet this demand. There are 8 English teacher training programs in the tertiary institutions in the province. However, it is important that the quantitative rise of teachers of English is matched by an increase in the quality of English language teaching. To achieve such quality enhancement, research-based English language teaching innovations need to be implemented, particularly in English teacher training programs in this province.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study is to explore the attributes of ‘proficiency in English’ as understood and interpreted by Indonesian teacher-trainers. In this study, teachers were required to describe their understanding of what it meant to be proficient in English, particularly in Indonesian context. This covered what English norms were desirable and what practices were used to achieve those norms. The study therefore also investigated how teachers’ perceptions of ‘proficiency in English’ were manifested in their classroom practice. An examination of the degree of fit between these perceptions and manifestations of these perceptions can underpin curriculum planning and pedagogy relating to English language teaching in the Indonesian context. This focus can also quantify perceptions of the development of Indonesian English.

As discussed previously in this chapter, the need to formulate a stable definition of ‘proficiency in English’ is necessary, not only for Indonesian teachers of English, but also for Indonesian teacher-trainers who are responsible for training tertiary students to become the teachers of the future. The major task of teacher-trainers is to prepare

English teachers who are proficient in English. However, this is not a simple task given the numerous contextual factors that influence the conceptualization of the construct ‘proficiency in English’.

Currently many local school teachers of English who have graduated from English language teacher education programs in Indonesia are not considered to be proficient English users, nor even very ‘good’ teachers of English. According to the Indonesian Minister of Education, the national teacher professional competence test for Indonesian teachers of English has provided results that are far beyond the intended competencies (Sundari, 2012). This situation can cause a loss of confidence in English language teachers because of a lack of awareness among non-language educators and policy makers of the complex issues affecting the mastery of English in the Indonesian context.

Studies from a language teaching perspective have indicated that what language teachers ‘think’, such as their beliefs and knowledge, is not always evident in what they do in their classrooms due to social, psychological and environmental factors (Borg, 2006, p.40). In the case of English teaching in Indonesia, contextual factors can also constrain English teachers’ classroom practice and cause them to not act in accordance with what they have theorized. Therefore, there was a need to explore Indonesian teacher-trainers’ conceptualizations of ‘proficiency in English’ because this is regarded as the main intended learning outcome. Once these views were ascertained, it was necessary to seek evidence of their manifestation in the classroom and to review those contextual factors which influence teaching practice and the subsequent learning outcomes of the students.

1.3 Significance of the Study

According to Brown (2007, p.7), how teachers conceptualize a language and its components influences how they teach that language. Such research is significant as these perceptions will influence concepts of ‘proficiency in English’ among teachers and students in the Indonesian context. This study will therefore alert language educators to any compatibility or discrepancy between teachers’ perceptions and their actual teaching. Additionally, the findings of this study can inform English

language teaching pedagogy and contribute to current understanding of the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English.

More generally, the findings will contribute to English language curriculum development in Indonesia regarding program design; learning objectives; content and pedagogical activities in the classroom; and evaluation and assessment. Specifically, this study is of significance to the professional development of English teacher-trainers in Indonesia to improve pedagogic practices in order to ensure ‘proficiency in English’ as an outcome of English language learning. In line with current debate regarding the existence of an Indonesian variety of English, the outcome of the research may lead to acknowledging a level of ‘proficiency in English’ which accords with how Indonesians use English language to meet their needs as Indonesians.

1.4 Research Questions

In order to fulfil the aims of the study, this research has addressed three research questions:

1. What are the teacher-trainers’ perceptions of ‘proficiency in English’?
2. How are those perceptions manifested in the teacher-trainers’ training practices?
3. How does the degree of fit between the teacher-trainers’ perceptions and their training practices inform English language teaching pedagogy and how does it contribute to the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English?

1.5 Limitations of the Study

Several limitations were acknowledged in this study. Firstly, its scope is acknowledged as the research sample was small. The number of participants was too small to address all dimensions the research questions or to generalize beyond the context of this study. With a larger number of participants, including a greater number of different classroom practices, further information on how the teacher-trainers manifested their perceptions of ‘proficiency in English’ in their classroom

practices would almost certainly have emerged. In addition, the study was further limited by the duration of the observation time which meant that the participants were observed over a relatively short period of time. However, in spite of the small number of participants and limited observation time, issues addressed in this study were still revealed.

Nonetheless, while the results of this study may not be generalizable, they will be transferable (Lincoln & Guba 1985) as they can be compared by the readers with their own situations. Therefore, thick descriptions, detailed information of the context, and the background to the study have been provided.

A further limitation is subjectivity in interpreting the findings. To overcome this, the interpretive framework employed was informed by literature on the particular disciplinary theories for conceptualization and philosophical assumptions.

Finally, the methodological problems inherent in this study are also acknowledged. The findings of each phase of this study were potentially limited by the limitations of the instruments and the treatment of collected data. Processes, such as trialling the instruments for data collection and using multiple strategies for data analysis were therefore conducted to ensure that they counteracted the limitations of any of one strategy.

1.6 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Following this introduction which makes a case for the significance of the problem, contextualizes the study, and provides an introduction of its basic components, Chapter 2 reviews extant literature and research relating to the research questions that are addressed in this study. It also considers, from a variety of perspectives, how the notion of ‘English language proficiency’ is problematic particularly in the Indonesian context. In this chapter, the issues of English language teaching and teacher training in Indonesian are also described, and the relationship between teachers’ perceptions and their classroom practice are reviewed. In Chapter 3, the research methodology is presented explaining the justification of the process of collecting and analysing the data. It also describes the

research setting and participants. The instrument design and development for this study are explained in this chapter. The process and analysis of interview trials and pilot testings of the questionnaire are provided, along with the final versions of the instruments, are provided in the Appendices of this thesis. Chapter 4 reports the findings of Phase One and describes the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English'. The findings of Phase Two, that is observations describing the manifestations of these perceptions in classroom practice, are reported in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 includes an interpretation of the findings of the study with reference to each of the research questions and describes the implications of this study to inform English language teaching pedagogy and the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English. Finally Chapter 7 presents a set of recommendations and suggestions for future research.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

- 'Perception' is one's understanding or interpretation of a subject.
- 'Proficiency in English' is the term used in this study to refer to the descriptions of the state and attributes of being proficient in English based on how the term is understood in the discipline of English language teaching.
- The term 'English teacher-trainers' refers to English language educators who work in English teacher training programs in teachers' colleges and universities..
- 'Training practice' and 'Classroom practice' are used interchangeably in this study. These terms refer to teacher-trainers' actual activities in the classrooms with their students who are preparing to be teachers of English.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter has four sections in which the literature that relates to the study is discussed. Section 1 focuses on the linguistic perspectives which influence the conceptualisation of the notion ‘language proficiency’. Section 2 reviews the problematic construct of ‘English language proficiency’ which underpins Research Question 1 of this study. Section 3 describes issues of English language teaching practice, particularly in the Indonesian context which Research Question 2 addresses. Finally in Section 4, literature relating to language teachers’ perceptions and their classroom practices is reviewed to inform Research Question 3.

2.1 Perspectives on Language Proficiency

The theories of language fall into four broad categories: “Structural, Cognitive, Functional, and Interactional” (Lavandenz, 2011, p.21). Structuralist theories of language relate to the elements of language such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexical components. Cognitive theories, adopted by the mentalists, follow the view that knowledge of a language structure is biologically inherited. The third types are the Functional or Communicative theories of language which affirm that the primary function of language is to communicate. Finally there are Interactional theories which view language as a means to achieve relationships and performances (internal/innate features) between people (Richards & Rodgers, 1998, p. 17). In other words, Interactional theories take the view that language is used to accomplish personal and social connections.

All these theories of language influence language teaching. For example, the structural view of language along with behavioural learning theory claims that learning is about habit formation. Thus, language learning is undertaken by activities such as practice and repetition. This construct informs language teaching theories that result in language teaching methods such as the Oral approach in UK, the Audiolingual approach in North America, and the Situational approach in Australia, all of which are influenced by a behavioural paradigm (Whong, 2011, p.121).

Language teaching methods are also interconnected with theories of linguistics, language learning and language teaching. The notion of language proficiency, for instance, has raised considerable attention in the field of linguistics. According to Butler and Hakuta (2005, p.119), language proficiency has been conceptualized and measured in various ways which have resulted in various conceptualizations. Therefore no consensus on the definition of language proficiency exists. The different, and overlapping, explanations of language proficiency are described in the following section.

2.1.1 Structuralism and Chomsky's Notions of 'Competence' and 'Performance'

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), the founding father of Structural linguistics, proposed the famous notions of *langue* and *parole*. Language in this theory is comprised of *langue* as the underlying structure of a language, and *parole* is the product of *langue*. According to Clark (2007, p.2), Saussure's *langue* is the abstract formal linguistic system in every individual's mind and which every member of a community shares through an identical homogenous *langue*. *Parole* is "the realisation of actual speech" (Clark, 2007, p.2).

However, Structural linguistics has its shortcomings in accommodating varieties in language since language systems, according to this theory, cannot be generalised to all languages. Krober (2010, p. 2) sees the weakness of Structural linguistics as its difficulty in describing the irregularity of language. Despite the limitations of Structural linguistics, its existence created an embryo of the notion of 'language proficiency'.

To address the weaknesses of structural linguistics, Chomsky (1965, p.4-20), proposed a new field of linguistics known as Generative Linguistics. He argued for a more abstract system of language in the human brain called *competence*. Chomsky maintained that human beings are born with a language acquisition device (LAD) and that *competence* and *performance* are more distinct than the Structuralists proposed. *Competence* is a native speakers' knowledge of an abstract system of language (Llurda, 2000, p.86) - a tacit knowledge of the structure of a language. *Performance* refers to the actual execution of this tacit knowledge. So while

Saussure's *langue* refers predominantly to the sociolinguistic aspects of communicating within one's community, Chomsky's *competence* emphasizes psychological or psycholinguistic ones (Richard & Schmidt, 2002). Moreover, the Structuralists held to a behaviourism perspective advocating that all language is learnt; while Innatism, or the Cognitivist view of Chomsky, claims that language is acquired. However, according to Lightbrown and Spada, (2006, p.50), the argument as to whether language is learnt or acquired remains inconclusive as Structuralist and Cognitive views on language learning are similarly posited. That is, the relationship between *competence* (knowledge of language) and *performance* (language behaviour) and between *langue* and *parole* are similar in that the knowledge of language occurs before the production of language. This view influences the process of language teaching and learning. Since the work of these early linguists, the concepts of 'acquisition' and 'learning' have, in general, been separated to refer to first language acquisition and second language learning respectively.

In language teaching and learning contexts, gaining knowledge of language is treated hierarchically from the structuralist view. For example, under the behaviourist paradigm, language learners are encouraged to learn the small parts of speech starting from *phones*, *morphs*, *phrases*, *clauses*, to *sentences*. This paradigm proposes that learners must go into a process of learning that replicates a child's acquisition of their first language. In line with this view is the idea of habit formation which underlies the Audiolingual approach to language teaching (Saville-Troike, 2006, p.195). Language performance is thus achieved through practising the forms of a language. In other words, language learning is seen as an unconscious and automatic process.

Structuralist and Cognitivist perspectives also have different orientations within L2 teaching and learning. While the Structuralist's perspective advocates that the grammatical and syntactic elements of L2 are taught explicitly and sequentially, cognitivists promote learning strategies for accomplishing *performance*. L2 educators who adopt this latter view base their teaching on an information processing model. For example, the development of language skills is initiated by knowledge of the language system and knowledge of how to use the language which finally leads into the automatization of L2 skills (Johnson, 1996, p. 83- 89).

From a second language teaching perspective, Cognitivists see language learning as gaining proficiency in the four language skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing, which are taught sequentially along with related knowledge components. These skills have been used to describe proficiency in modern L2 education (Stern 1992, p.347). However, numerous L2 teachers assume that learners already have the innate set of language rules needed to perform the four language skills. Nonetheless, these four skills are not adequate to define language proficiency which includes accomplishing the social functions of language.

2.1.2 Functionalism and the Construct of ‘Proficiency’

According to Chomsky (1965, p.4), language performance should not be regarded as the full manifestation of *competence* as several mental conditions such as memory limitations, attention, distraction or other psychological factors may affect it. This argument underpins Chomsky’s theory for a distinction between *competence* and *performance*. However, this separation of *competence* and *performance* is rejected by Functionalists who claim that both *competence* and *performance* are required to achieve a further aim viz. communicative function. Thus, Dell Hymes (1966, 1972), a leading anthropological linguist, proposed the notion of “communicative competence” as a substitute for language proficiency (Walcott, 2007, p. 7). Hymes described *communicative competence* as “both the *knowledge* and the ability to use language that is socially acceptable in a given context (*ability for use*)” (Butler & Hakuta, 2005, p.122). Therefore to understand and use linguistic forms in context, social and cultural knowledge is needed. Hence *performance* is a combination of knowing the language system and knowing how to use it in real life (Halliday, 1978). Similarly Newby (2011) asserts that *performance* not only means ‘knowing what’ and ‘knowing how’, but also the ability to perform in reality.

Functional linguists are therefore interested in Chomsky’s idea of the “mental reality underlying actual behaviour” (1965, p.4) which is understood by both camps as knowledge of language. However the issue of *competence* has become more complex with arguments for separating linguistic and psychological aspects (see Chomsky e.g. 1965, 1981; Soames, 1984), while Cognitive linguists such as Heine

(1997); Tomasello (2003); and Croft and Cruse (2004) maintain that language and cognition are inseparable.

This debate between Cognitive and Functional linguists has contributed to the development of conceptual frameworks for language proficiency. Hymes (1972) enhanced Chomsky's notion of *competence* by including communicative ability (Kumaradivelu 2012). According to Hymes, there are two kinds of competencies that make up *communicative competence*: *grammatical competence* and *sociolinguistic competence*. It is only the former which constituted Chomsky's concept of *competence* (Iyldyz , 2007, p. 90). However, the debate continues on the use of the term *competence* for describing a 'language proficiency' construct. (See also Krober, 2010, Adegnile & Alabi, 2005).

Bachman (2003) expanded the Functionalist definition of *communicative competence* to include "communicative language ability" (p. 84) which consists of knowledge and ability to execute language appropriately based on context. Its components are *language proficiency*, referring to the capacity to use language, and *communicative proficiency* including the knowledge of the world and the strategies to use language proficiently in contextualised situations (Llurda, 2000, p. 89). This has led to the view that language is best learnt by studying messages as a whole, instead of studying the forms of language. Moreover, Saville-Troike, (2006, p. 53) notes that this paradigm proposes that language needs to not only be 'correctly' used but also 'appropriately' used (that is, knowing when to speak or not, what to say to whom, and how to say it in any given situation). Thus the Functional approach views language as the outcome of meaning and as a system of communication.

For language practitioners, the Functional theory of language and communication affected second and/or foreign language teaching practice, but also assessment practices, since this view of language has helped teaching practitioners define the concept of *performance*. These practitioners see *language proficiency* as having knowledge of the language system and knowing how to use it in real communication situations, thus being able to transform language form into language use or function. Language is therefore linked to society and culture. However, they propose that all languages have the same functions because they meet similar human needs (see Halliday, 1973, 2003).

The Functionalist approach can also lead to confusion amongst language practitioners because to define ‘accurate and appropriate’ in different linguistic and cultural contexts is problematic. Tensions arise in response to questions such as ‘Accurate for whom?’ and ‘Appropriate for whom?’ Therefore, the debate is ongoing, especially when using L1 as the reference point for non-L1 proficiency in second language learning contexts, and particularly for learning English as a foreign language.

2.1.3 Formalism and the Construct of ‘Correctness’ in Language Proficiency

Formalist linguists describe *linguistic competence* as unconscious language knowledge because people are aware of the rules but they cannot articulate them (White 1998, p.1). The properties to produce the grammatical sentences of a language are embedded inherently in every human mind. In other words, native speakers of a language know whether utterances are grammatical or ungrammatical, whether they have one or more meanings, but they cannot explain why. This view of the innate knowledge of the structure of a language was popularized by Chomsky’s (1965; 1966) work on the theory of *Universal Grammar* (Butler & Hakuta, 2006, p. 121). In language learning, this theory describes how L1 is acquired using a language device in the human mind. Later, Chomsky (1981) also proposed a theory of *Principles* and *Parameters* that drew on the construct of *Universal Grammar*. Chomsky’s *Principles* refer to “the underlying structural properties of language contained in the human mind” (Loewen & Reinders, 2011, p.139). According to this theory, all language conforms to abstract rules that already exist in the human brain, so first language learners do not learn them. For example, when people produce sentences, they do not only put words together but form sentences based on inherent structural elements. A *parameter* is the actual setting for which language is used. Saville-Troike (2011) explains that *principles* encompass *parameters*. *Parameters are* “points where there is a limited choice of settings depending on which specific language is involved” (p.47). This means that a language is learnt through both innate structural elements and received input.

Butler and Hakuta (2005) explain that from this Formalist view, language acquisition concerns “a process of developing of grammar of a particular language by exposure

to an immediate environment consisting of speech in the language being acquired” (p.121). In other words, individuals already have the means to create linguistic rules and they just need exposure to a particular linguistic environment to set the *parameters* for these rules. The process of determining the *parameters* is based on language input which is referred as “the language acquisition process” (Whong, 2011, p. 43).

The *Universal Grammar* theory is mostly concerned with L1 development, but some researchers see it as also applicable to L2 learning (Cook, 2010). To some extent, language practitioners agree that L2 learners need exposure to natural input for learning the L2. It is also assumed that L2 learners who already have innate *principles* are able to set their *parameters* based on L1 input can also do so for their L2. However, this is still questionable and appears to be determined by maturational constraints. Therefore there is no consensus amongst Formalist linguists that all L2 learners are able to reset their *parameters* (Whong, 2011, p. 55). Research findings which have revealed inconsistencies regarding parameter settings (White, 2003) seem to lead to scepticism in defining the ‘correctness’ of a language.

In the context of L2 teaching and learning, the construct of ‘correctness’ in language proficiency remains unresolved amongst applied linguists. There is a considerable debate regarding the exact linguistic properties associated with *parameters* that can be used to indicate correctness of language (Whong 2011, p. 43). However *Universal Grammar* is still applicable in L2 learning because parameters need to be reset in some way to become proficient in a target language. Most obviously learners need to be consistently exposed to the target language, particularly when they do not live in the environments where the target language is used and do not have direct access to native speakers of the L2. However learning in these situations leads to difficulties in determining levels of L2 correctness and linguistic competence.

The view of linguistic competence for L2 English learners, based on L1 proficiency continues to be questioned. For example, Adegbile and Alabi, (2005, p.31) argue that attaining ‘correctness’ based on native speaker proficiency is an overwhelming challenge for both teachers and learners. This is because in non- English speaking countries, those who learn English are mostly taught by non-L1 English teachers who do not themselves have L1 proficiency in English.

Further, ‘correctness’ as part of L2 proficiency cannot be compared to proficiency in a single variety of L1, particularly with regard to English. Variability in L1 learning outcomes is beyond Formalist linguistics research and there is no consensus on defining ‘correctness’ by referring to its likeness to L1. Thus, for applying ‘correctness’ based on L1 proficiency remains problematic amongst L2 educators.

2.2 Problems with the Construct of ‘Proficiency in English’

In the context of this study, ‘proficiency in English’ is not scrutinized by way of testing. Instead, it is explored through an investigation of the theoretical perspectives of English language educators. In the previous sections, *language proficiency* has been described from the perspective of various linguistic theories. It is clear that there is no consensus on its definition across the different paradigms which lead to difficulty in constructing a unitary language proficiency framework. Moreover, disputes on which English norms should be followed by L2 English learners present further challenges for language practitioners. As a result, various pragmatic conceptions of ‘proficiency in English’ have been generated.

2.2.1 L1 English Proficiency vs Non-L1 English Proficiency

Proficiency in L1 is complex especially when used as a reference for L2 learners. Stern (1983, p.346) proposes characteristics for defining ‘native speaker’ or L1 proficiency. These are: having informal mastery, which means intuitive mastery of the appropriate form of language; semantic mastery, or the intuitive mastery of linguistic, cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural meanings expressed by the different language forms; communicative mastery, or the capacity to use the language; and creative mastery, which is the ability to generate novel linguistic productions when using the language. These features are not only available to L1 speakers, but they also exist for non-L1 speakers who may be bilingual or multilingual.

While ‘native’ or L1 speaking criteria have been used for language proficiency reference, language testing researchers still believe that these criteria are not

sufficient. The common use of proficiency rating scales based on ‘native speakers’ norms are considered invalid because they are not empirically based, and are without content validity (Bruhn, 1989, p.245). In the context of English language testing for learners in non-English speaking countries, it is deemed unfair to judge non-L1 English using native L1 English as a point of reference, as these learners will use the sociolinguistic features of their local contexts. Cook (2005, pp. 50-54), for example, claims that second language users have their own sociolinguistic characteristics that are not identical to those of native speakers. These characteristics encompass language uses that differ from those of native speakers, knowledge of their first language, and an established language system that differs from that of native speakers. Based on these arguments, comparison of L2 English proficiency with that of L1 speakers is problematic.

2.2.2 Standard English Perspective vs World Englishes Perspective

Kachru (1997, p.213) describes his seminal model of Concentric Circles of how English is being acquired and used. Kachru’s Concentric Circles consist of the Inner Circle, with varieties such as those spoken in Great Britain and the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The English in Inner Circle countries has been occurred for a number of reasons such as the migration of L1 English speakers. The next circle is an Outer or Extended circle, with varieties like those spoken in India, Pakistan, the Philippines or other countries in Africa, South Asia, South-East Asia, the Caribbean and countries where English has an official status. In the Outer Circle countries, the spread of English was mainly caused by colonization. The last circle is the Expanding circle, which includes China, Indonesia, Japan and other countries where English has no official status but it is used for international communication (Crystal, 2006; McKay, 2002).

Two broad perspectives- Standard English and World Englishes- have contributed to defining non-L1 English proficiency not only in Outer but also in Expanding Circle countries. The Standard English perspective supports native-like proficiency based on native English norms. Thus Inner Circle English varieties are considered appropriate for teaching and learning contexts because they have been codified and have well-established proficiency tests (Davies 2002). By contrast, the World

Englishes perspective claims that the Standard English view is monolithic and not suitable for the local contexts of Outer and Expanding Circle countries. The World Englishes perspective holds a pluralistic view of English and maintains that non-native varieties of English are suitable for teaching and learning in local cultural contexts.

Both these perspectives have their problems. Within the Standard English perspective, debates have emerged on determining a unified comprehensive definition of what Standard English means. Multiple understandings of Standard English have led linguists to define its meanings based on "... their interest in describing language; many would define Standard English much more prescriptively as an accepted norm - the 'correct' and historically legitimated version of English" (Myhill, 2011, p.68). Linguists advocating the Standard English perspective, implicitly include language standardization. However, standardizing is not ideal because language itself is dynamic. With this view, the English varieties of Outer Circle countries can be perceived as deviations.

Within the World Englishes perspective, several issues arise, for example the measurement of non-L1 English proficiency. According to Davies, Hamp-Lyons and Kemp (2008, p. 26), measuring 'non-native' English proficiency by using standard forms from Inner Circle countries only is biased. From the World Englishes point of view, the Outer and Expanding Circle countries where the status of English is as a foreign language, there should be no need to depend on the English from the Inner Circle countries. Furthermore, it has been unavoidable that both norms from Inner and Outer Circle countries have entered the Expanding Circle countries adding further complexity to the measurement of English language proficiency in such countries. To overcome this problem, Lowenberg (2002, p.433) suggests that examiners must be able to distinguish between acquisitional deficiencies and varietal differences in non-L1 English speakers' production. However, even this suggestion may not be feasible because a number of English varieties, particularly in the Expanding Circle countries, have not yet been codified.

With regard to a contemporary definition of English proficiency within the World Englishes view, Canagarajah (2006) proposes that to be proficient in English, someone needs to have strategies for negotiation and situated performance, as well

as a communicative repertoire and language awareness (p. 240). This means that English language learners need to have multidialectal competence for the post-modern globalized world where, he believes, there are no boundaries between communities or countries because of economic relationships, technologies, the internet, and the media. This conception of English proficiency is still at a theoretical level, and is yet to manifest itself at a practical and technical level, including its measurement, which will generate challenges for English educators.

To seek accurate and meaningful ways for assessing and measuring English language learners' proficiency within the World Englishes perspective raises difficulties for English language educators. Measuring English proficiency according to Canagarajah (2006, p.241), who claims that a proficient speaker is aware of native and new English norms, will also require complicated assessment processes, particularly when conducted in the Expanding Circle countries. He suggests that the assessment should move towards multiple tasks to assess a candidate's skill in different communicative activities. It should involve L1 and non-L1 English assessors to assess the candidate according to a range of holistic and discrete-item criteria, and there should be multiple candidates to create a communicative situation where language use is negotiated.

However, to apply the kind of assessment proposed by Canagarajah (2006), will create technical problems amongst language assessment designers relating to development, trialling and subsequent costs. While it may work in Outer Circles contexts where the varieties of English have rapidly developed and have been used institutionally, the status and function of English in the Expanding circle countries is not similar.

To conclude, the Standard English and World Englishes perspectives have raised problematic issues regarding English language teaching and learning. They not only create challenges for English users, but also for language educators particularly in Expanding Circles countries such as Indonesia. The result of these two competing paradigms has resulted in confusion amongst language practitioners as to which model of English to select for teaching English. This is described in the following section.

2.2.3 Selecting an ‘Appropriate’ Model in Outer and Expanding Circles Countries

In the context of English language teaching in Expanding Circles countries, selecting a model of English is problematic as English is not a single variety. English has become a dynamic language, especially given its spread around the world into new cultural environments, and its role in Expanding Circle communities. For years, the L1 or native speaker norms of English from the Inner Circle countries have been the ideal reference for English in second and foreign language education within both Outer and Expanding Circles countries.

In some environments, American English has gained the reputation of the ‘idealised standard’. This is demonstrated by Tan and Castelli’s (2013) investigation of international responses to Singapore English (SgE) and American English (AmE), where they found that the intelligibility of SgE and AmE was not different for respondents in group 1 (USA, UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand), group 2 (East Asia) or group 3 (South-East Asia). Interestingly, however, this study revealed higher desirability ratings for American English, particularly from respondents in groups 2 and 3 indicating an impenetrable ‘native speaker’ bias and an inferiority complex about English varieties.

The Inner Circle English, termed the exonormative form of English (Kirkpatrick, (2007), has long been the guideline for measuring and determining second and foreign English language learners’ proficiency. According to Kirkpatrick (2007, p. 184-194), historically, the exonormative native speaker model has been chosen by the majority of outer circle and expanding circles countries because of its prestige and legitimacy; because these models have been codified; and because of the availability of resources that provide standards for measurement. These advantages often leave no room for other varieties of English, especially in Expanding Circle countries.

However, adherence to exonormative forms of English has its shortcomings. Kirkpatrick (2007, p. 8) notes, for example, a non-L1 English speaker who can speak the same L1 as his/her students and who has undergone the same language learning process, may still not use the exonormative models of English. Hence, English

language learners in Expanding Circle countries are most likely be exposed to a model of English which differs markedly from that which they are meant to attain.

The emergence of English varieties and the desire for ‘Standard English’ creates tensions amongst language practitioners and linguists. Therefore, the issue of adopting exonormative and/or endonormative (localized) forms of English in Outer and Expanding Circle countries remains unresolved. World Englishes supporters claim that in the Outer Circle countries, the term English should refer to the endonormative form, especially in non-academic contexts where the available pragmatic option derives from the indigenized endonormative model (Joshi, 2011, p.7). Other reasons for this may be cultural, political or economic, such as a reluctance to promote Anglo-American values in classrooms or the economic benefits of hiring local teachers and using local resources (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.189).

Despite these opinions, the shortcomings of endonormative forms of English cannot be avoided, particularly in the Expanding Circle countries. Issues include codification of the variety in teaching materials such as grammar books and dictionaries, and the intelligibility of the variety when communicating with speakers of other varieties. Frustration with these shortcomings has led to ‘standard’ American or British English remaining the norm in these ESL and EFL contexts (Bolton, 2002, p. 30). Furthermore, in the Indonesian context, adopting an endonormative model of English may not be supported by English language educators who have not shifted their view to a World Englishes perspective.

To conclude, the construct of English proficiency has been addressed within various theoretical perspectives. The paradigms of Standard English and World Englishes have also influenced the conceptualization of English proficiency. The dispute regarding the most ‘appropriate’ model for the contrasting range of L2 English teaching and learning contexts remains unresolved. In addition, linguists and language practitioners in Expanding Circle countries, such as Indonesia, will also have formulated their own conceptions of ‘proficiency in English’ based on their practical experience. These issues underpin Research Question 1 (What are the teacher-trainers’ perceptions of ‘proficiency in English?’) which was designed to identify the most prevalent perceptions of proficiency from the multiple interpretations of this construct by Indonesian teacher-trainers.

2.3 English Proficiency and English Language Teaching Practices in Indonesia

In non-English speaking environments such as Indonesia, the evidence of proficiency in English is gathered through institutional English tests. These widely used English proficiency tests are still developed in the English speaking environments of Inner Circle countries. Lowenberg (2002, p.431) states that in Indonesia, English is considered a foreign language in which norms are still those of the exonormative forms of Inner Circle English. TOEFL, IELTS, and TOEIC are recognised by Indonesians as institutionalized English tests. Indonesian tertiary students who plan to continue their studies in English speaking countries are encouraged to take TOEFL or IELTS. In the economic sector, Indonesian companies consider employees who have obtained high scores in TOEFL or TOEIC and are deemed to be proficient in English.

However, to claim that English learners are proficient in English should not only be based on test results (Kober, Chudowsky & Chudowsky, 2010) as any assessment tools that seek evidence of proficiency will also have technical problems. Nonetheless, test results are continuously used as indicators of proficiency in Indonesia even though these tests require assessment of exonormative forms of English that the Indonesians may have never learnt. This results in only a limited number of English language learners achieving the desired results from test scores, which in turn leads to misunderstandings of proficiency by many local Indonesian employers.

In addition, according to Davies et al (2003, p. 583) these international tests tend to be biased towards demonstrating the native speaking skills of Inner Circle countries. Despite this, international English test developers, such as IELTS, claim that they have designed valid and reliable international English instruments by conducting research to accommodate the purposes of the tests and the goals of candidates (Taylor, 2010, p.7).

Despite the controversy, many Indonesians are taking international English tests due to demands from worldwide educational institutions which require prospective students to have certain scores from internationally recognised English tests. Job opportunities in Inner Circle countries also increase the number of candidates sitting

for the IELTS test. According to a representative of British Council in Indonesia, some 1.7 million candidates took the IELTS test in 2011. The average score showed an increase from 6.2 in 2010 to 6.4 in 2011 on the 9 band scale. From these results, the British Council English claims that Indonesians English proficiency has increased (“English proficiency rises in Indonesia”, 2012, August 23, <http://www.antaranews.com/en/news>) although the increase is not significant. English proficiency in Indonesia is therefore still determined by institutionalized English testing which acts as a gate keeper for educational and employment purposes. Such a situation can only cause Indonesians to escalate their adherence to exonormative forms of English.

For middle to lower class Indonesians, the English proficiency tests which are recognised internationally are expensive because the fees are similar around the world. Therefore financial issues relating to international tests have become a hindrance. To overcome this, a number of Indonesian educational institutions provide a less expensive TOEFL-like test, but the results are only recognised inside Indonesia. These tests have the same down-side in that the test items are taken directly from Inner Circle sources. Nonetheless, these tests continue to be used in Indonesia for determining English proficiency.

2.3.1 English Language Teaching in Indonesia

Indonesians are taught English in high schools raising issues relating to the curriculum and teaching and learning resources; Indonesian teachers of English; and Indonesian students of English

I. English Curriculum and Teaching and Learning Resources

English is a compulsory subject in secondary levels in Indonesia. The Department of Education and related educational institutions have a role in determining the outcomes for learning English. However, a long history of curriculum changes has influenced English language teaching. These changes have followed the dominant English language methodologies (Sahiruddin, 2013, p.256). Since Indonesian independence in 1945 until 2006, nine different English curricula have been

implemented for secondary schools and in 2013, a further new curriculum was launched called the KTSP 2006 curriculum (Bire, 2010; Sahiruddin, 2013).

As a result of these changes, teaching resources and text books have also changed. A dilemma has emerged with the use of materials from Inner Circle countries which do not accord with many of the students' local cultural practices, but local materials are difficult to find. Based on Zacharias' (2005), study however, Indonesian English teachers still prefer teaching and learning resources from Inner Circle countries despite these content issues.

II. Indonesian Teachers of English

Indonesian English teachers are deemed to have low levels of English proficiency and to lack teaching qualifications (see Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). However, it is not clear how the teachers' English proficiency in these studies was measured since no stable framework for assessing their proficiency has been established. The lack of professional development addressing the new curriculum and new teaching roles is also problematic. Dardjowidjojo (2000) and Nur (2004) share the assumption that these shortcomings contribute to major ongoing problems in English language teaching in Indonesia. To this end, Sahiruddin (2013, p. 571) suggests that there should be a special training program for prospective and current English teachers focusing on the new curriculum content its implementation. Such a program could be of benefit but various institutional and social constraints also need to be considered.

III. Indonesian Students of English

Indonesian students of English, particularly school students, are viewed as showing a lack of motivation and a poor attitude towards learning English (see Dardjowidjojo, 1996; and Kam, 2004). Other issues, such as class sizes, have been blamed for poor learning outcomes. Scholars have suggested the introduction of autonomous and independent learning to overcome this issue, but its suitability for Indonesian students is debateable. For example, cultural constraints such as obedience stemming from paternalistic values may influence Indonesian students' ability to learn independently (see Dardjowidjojo, 2001). However, Lewis (1997) indicates that

Indonesian students in higher education prefer to learn independently and autonomously.

2.3.2 English Language Teacher Training in Indonesia

Teachers are a major factor determining the success of learners. Indonesian English educators are the product of Indonesian English language teacher training programs. There are few rigorous studies of English teacher training programs in Indonesia. As such, English language teacher training programs are described generally in this section.

There are two pathways for English teacher training in Indonesia: universities or teacher colleges owned either by the government or private institutions. These institutions must be accredited by the National Department of Education. After finishing high school, the students, aged about 19 or 20 years old, are able to undertake English teacher training to qualify as certified English teachers. The selection of these students is done through placement tests prior to them beginning courses.

During the 4 to 5 year course, the students are trained by lecturers or teacher-trainers who have national and overseas qualifications in English and teaching pedagogy. The training is based on resources from the Inner circle countries. Before finishing their training, students undertake teaching practice for around six months. During this placement, students work with an experienced teacher in a school. They must prepare, rehearse, observe, and analyze the lessons.

English teacher training programs in Indonesia follow a prescribed national curriculum but they may also have locally developed curricula. Training institutions must provide instruction on English language, literature, education curriculum, and teaching methodology. The programs offer general units including nationalism, religion, ethics, and logic; linguistics and literature courses; English skill-related courses such as listening, speaking, reading, writing; English teaching-related courses such as TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language); and pedagogical courses such as classroom management.

After examining ten English teacher education programs in Indonesia, Luciana (2009) found that “not only were the discrepancies wide in terms of the teachers’ “English knowledge base” but also the teaching skills were not adequately imparted and developed” (p.2). In her investigation, there was evidence of different content although it was labeled similarly across the programs. Therefore the claim that all English teachers training programs in Indonesia are similar is debatable as “the shared academic judgments of the program standardization has not been articulated and accountably held” (Luciana, 2009, p.10). This indicates that the quality of each English teacher training program in Indonesia may vary markedly.

To conclude, institutional English tests and the process of English language teaching and teacher training in the Indonesian context are not free from problems. To better understand the context of English teacher education programs in Indonesia, language teachers’ theoretical knowledge needs to be reviewed as well as its manifestation in their practice. In this study, Indonesian teacher-trainers’ perceptions and their classroom practice are compared to obtain a more holistic understanding of teaching practice and notions of proficiency. The described English language teaching and training issues will address Research Question 2 (How are those perceptions [of ‘proficiency in English] manifested in the teacher-trainers’ training practices?).

2.4 Relationships between Language Teachers Perceptions and Their Practices

In this section, literature relating to teacher-trainers’ perceptions of ‘proficiency in English’ in relation to their classroom practices is reviewed within the terms of technical and procedural knowledge. Studies of language teacher cognition particularly in the Indonesian context are also reviewed.

Language teachers’ cognition has been studied within different foci and addressed by various terms, for example ‘teachers’ concern’ (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001), ‘teachers’ principles’ (Bailey, 1996), ‘teachers’ maxims’ (Richards, 1996), and ‘teachers’ perceptions’ (da Silva, 2005). For example, da Silva (2005) investigated a group of Brazilian pre-service EFL teachers with a view to understanding how their perceptions related to their pedagogical practice. In this study, the term ‘perception’ was defined as the physical and intellectual ability used

in mental processing to recognize, interpret and understand events. Similarly in this study, the term ‘perception’ is adopted in investigating teacher-trainers’ conceptual understanding of the constructs under study.

Within the context of L2 English teaching, Breen, et.al (2001) reported that actual teaching practice did relate to underlying the language teaching principles that guided teachers’ work, but in a complex manner. Not only could a widely adopted practice be based on diverse principles, but a commonly shared principle may also be implemented in a wide range of practices. They found that they could not predict teachers’ actual practice through interview or questionnaire data alone (Breen, et.al. 2001, p.498). This claim lends support to the need for classroom observation in order to capture actual teaching practice.

2.4.1 Perceptions and Personal Constructs

In this study, ‘perception’ refers to either individual and social understanding or the interpretation of a given subject - in this case language teaching discipline. This perception is reflected in a personal construct which is based on the ways that individuals perceive events and how their perceptions direct their behaviour (McAdams, 2006). According to Wood, (2010, p. 67), personal constructs are used to shape perceptions. Thus it is assumed that people cannot conceptualize an object which is not covered by a construct.

According to George Kelly, who developed the theory of personal constructs, everyone has his/her own personal ideas, philosophies, and theories about the world (Beail, 1985. p.1). By using personal constructs, individuals make their own interpretations of their experiences, share their views and appreciate others’ interpretations (Beail, 1985). Fransella and Banister, (1977, after Kelly, 1955) suggest a personal construct is generated when an individual describes “a way in which two or more things alike and thereby different from a third or more things” (p.5). Even though not the most comprehensive way of describing personal constructs, for the purpose of this research, this was deemed adequate. Kelly further argued that constructs are bipolar in nature because individuals never affirm anything without simultaneously denying something else (Fransella & Banister,

1977, p. 5). More simply, a construct is an abstract idea created by individuals through examination of similarities and differences.

Studying language teachers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' requires studying an unobservable activity. Teachers' understandings and interpretations form part of the knowledge that provides the underlying framework or schema for their actions in classrooms (Richards, 1994, p. 29). According to Borg (2006, p. 40), the study of teacher cognition - what teachers think, know, believe, and the relationship of these mental constructs to what they do in the classroom - impacts on the profession as a whole.

To understand language teachers' professional actions, Borg (2003b, p. 81) suggests the study of classroom practice, as cognition is not isolated from action. According to Foss and Kleinsasser (1996, p.441), a number of studies in mainstream educational research have shown that teacher cognition and classroom practice exists in a symbiotic relationship. For example, teachers' instructional decisions are highly consistent with their expressed beliefs (Richard, 1998, p. 70). It seems therefore that there is a positive relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practice (see also Ng and Farrell, 2003).

However, there are also studies of language teacher cognition indicating incongruities between teacher cognition and classroom practice. Although teacher cognition might influence practice, it does not ultimately reflect their stated beliefs, personal theories, and pedagogical principles (Borg, 2006, p.275; see also Dobson and Dobson, 1983; Pearson, 1985; and Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1986). Inconsistencies in these studies raise concerns as to the place that teachers' knowledge holds in classroom language teaching.

2.4.2 Teachers' Technical and Practical Knowledge in Classroom Practice

Johnson (1999, p.1) claims that teachers' practice depends on:

...who you are, what you know and believe, and what you want your students to be able to know and do. It depends on what you are expected to teach, how you teach it, and

what your students are expected to do with what you have taught them... (p.1)

This indicates that teachers' practice is affected not only by their own knowledge, but also by their past experience, the context, the curriculum and the students. Oakeshott (1962, p.7), however, distinguished between two kinds of knowledge in practice: technical knowledge and practical knowledge (cited in O'Dwyer, 2006, p 7). Accordingly, technical knowledge is "formulated into rules which are, or may be, deliberately learned, remembered, and, as we say, put into practice" (p. 7). Practical knowledge is the "ways of doing things" (p.7). By contrast Calderhead (1988) maintains that it is practical knowledge "that is directly related to action . . . that is readily accessible and applicable to coping with real-life situations, and is largely derived from teachers' own classroom experience" (p.54). Practical knowledge then does not depend on technical knowledge as it appears that technical knowledge is more theoretical, while practical knowledge is developed in real life. However, technical and practical knowledge are interrelated and inseparable as each one informs the other.

Despite this debate these distinctions are useful for understanding why teachers do not necessarily act according to what they say they do in their classroom. This is attributed to the nature of practical knowledge which is flexible, adaptable, and continuously changing (O'Dwyer, 2006, p 8) according to the particular situation.

Golombek (1998, p.459) explains that teachers' personal practical knowledge informs their teaching practice. It acts as an interpretive framework for guiding their sense-making processes and to inform them on how to act in their practice. In other words, teachers make sense of their classrooms by relating them to their experience and then adjusting their actions to the demands of that particular teaching situation. It is possible that a teacher's practical knowledge could be in conflict with their technical knowledge. They may be required to act differently in order to deal with certain conditions. Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004), for example, reported only a tenuous relationship between the teachers' required practices and their stated beliefs.

2.4.3. Language Teachers' Cognition

Language teacher cognition includes “the unobservable cognitive dimensions of teaching- what teachers know, believe, and think” (Borg, 2003, p.81). Language teachers’ practices also relate to their mental activity (Birello, 2012). The widely accepted assumption is that “teachers are active thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and belief” (Borg, 2003, p.81). Furthermore, Borg, a seminal researcher in language teacher cognition and practice, claims that a holistic understanding of the relationship between beliefs and practice can be achieved by evaluating contextual factors because contexts mediate that relationship (Birello, 2012, p.92). As a result, language teaching is defined as a set of “dynamic interactions among cognition, context, and experience” (Borg, 2006, p.275). So when understanding language teachers’ cognition and practice, consideration should be given to contextual factors.

To conclude, an understanding of how language teacher perceptions relate to classroom practice can provide beneficial information, not only for language teaching professionals, but also to inform language teaching pedagogy. Such is the aim of Research Question 3 (How does the degree of fit between the teacher-trainers’ perceptions and their training practices inform English language teaching pedagogy with respect to the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English?). A response to this research question will shed light on the gaps that exist between what Indonesian educators of English espouse and what they actually do in their classrooms.

2.4.4 Empirical Studies on Language Teachers' Cognition in Indonesia

Most studies of teachers’ cognition in Indonesia seem to follow the contemporary view of language teacher education. Borg (2011) explains that this view “acknowledges teachers as active, thinking decision-makers whose actions are influenced by the unobservable cognitive (and affective) dimension of teaching” (p. 218). Conducting research on this area is important because understanding teachers’ cognition is necessary to their professional development as language teachers.

Teachers generally need to understand “what it means to be, become and develop as a teacher” (Borg, 2011 p. 218). Indonesian studies have enriched this research area.

Several investigations of Indonesian English teachers’ beliefs, opinions, and perceptions have been conducted. For example, Afrianto (2011) has focused on teachers’ experiences of ‘wash-back’ from the high-stakes National Examination for students in Indonesian secondary schools. It was found that teachers feel stressed and under pressure because they are forced to teach to the test. Haryanto (2013) has conducted descriptive research on administrators’ and teachers’ views on the implementation of English as a medium of instruction in Indonesia. His study found that teachers did not implement this policy as they were fully aware that they were not proficient enough in English to deliver the content. Yuwono, (2005) sought to capture principals’ and teachers’ voices in a study of English language teaching in less privileged schools in Indonesia and concluded with an urgent call to upgrade English teaching practice particularly in those less privileged schools.

From these studies, it is clear that various challenges confront English language educators in Indonesia in terms of institutional demands, English language proficiency, and the lack of available facilities for teaching English in schools. However, all these teachers’ insights were garnered without observing teaching practices. A more comprehensive study of language teacher cognition requires the inclusion of actual practices, as has been done in the research reported in this thesis.

Other research, such as a study by Zacharias (2003), has investigated teachers’ beliefs about English language teaching in Indonesia, in this respect with regard to the role of English as a global language. Zacharias then compared these teachers’ beliefs with their classroom practice using classroom observations to cross check the extent to which the teachers’ beliefs stated in the questionnaire were actually present in their classroom practice. The findings indicated that what teachers believed in principle was not entirely matched by what they did in the classroom. Overall, his study indicated discrepancies between the teachers’ beliefs and what they claimed to be their classroom practices. He suggested further studies be conducted in a similar vein and particularly to explore the use of L1 in teaching English in the Indonesian context – a practice not advocated by teachers of English applying communicative language teaching methods.

Upon reviewing studies of English language teaching in Indonesia, there is a noticeable dearth of literature on constructs within Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research and their relationship with classroom practices. This is in spite of Ellis's (2002) suggesting that teachers themselves need to investigate and/or implement SLA research ideas within their classrooms. Therefore, the current study is beneficial for a greater understanding of phenomena underlying English language teaching, particularly in the Indonesian context. As emphasised by Borg (2006, p.275), the relationship between cognition and practice in language teaching should be examined to understand the nature of language teaching itself. This premise has been used to inform the design of this present study which has explored not only language teacher cognition, but also authentic practice situations. The methodology for this is presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodological approach and research design used to address the research questions of this study. An overall interpretive framework was adopted to highlight the phenomenon under study. The basic assumption of this interpretive framework is that there are multiple truths and that different people will construct meanings in different ways even in relation to the same phenomenon (Crotty, 2005, p. 97). Throughout the literature, the notion of language proficiency has been interpreted using various perspectives. Inevitably, there are disagreements on the edges of the construct of ‘proficiency in English’ particularly in an Expanding Circle country such as Indonesia. The interpretive framework was employed to accommodate the differing interpretations of ‘proficiency in English’ in the dialogue with Indonesian English teacher-trainers and in observations of their classroom practices.

Heuristics, which inform the debate between constructivism and realism, inspired the topic for this study. The term ‘heuristics’ was adopted from Abbott (2004) who states that “the idea of heuristics is to open up new topics, to find new things. To do that, sometimes we need to invoke constructivism, ... [s]ometimes we need a little realism” (p.191). Thus, studies can be inspired by the ways that people perceive objects although their perceptions may not represent the actual reality. The topic of this study, teacher-trainers’ perceptions of proficiency in English, are derived from constructivism in which ‘proficiency in English’ has been arbitrarily defined and socially constructed. This construct is then matched to the realism of the classroom through observation of the actual practices of teacher-trainers. Therefore, the matching of constructivism and realism in this study has not only aimed to open up a new topic within English language teaching, but also to find new ideas regarding the understanding English language teaching particularly in the Indonesian context.

For the purpose of this study, heuristic strategies were also employed to design a research approach, and to collect and analyse data. In this respect, following Abbott (2004), the research gathered divergent perspectives instead of adopting just one position such as the polarised debates as positivism vs. interpretivism, analysis vs.

narrative, realism vs. constructivism (Maxwell, 2011, p.12). To this end, various methods were employed to capture different views and to provide flexibility in achieving a better understanding of the complexity of human experience.

3.1 Research Approach

A mixed methods research design was adopted in this study to counteract the limitations of any one individual method. For example, to address Research Question 1, teacher-trainers' perceptions of the construct 'proficiency in English' were explored using a large cohort. In this regard, gathering data through personal interactions with participants and submitting a questionnaire to a larger cohort of respondents were feasible strategies. Thus, the mixed methods research design encompassed ethnography and a survey. Ethnographic data were analysed by direct interpretation of individual's narratives and survey data were analysed by quantitative analysis using descriptive statistical methods. To describe teacher-trainers' classroom practices for addressing Research Question 2, content analysis was applied to the observation data deductively and inductively. Overall, the various types of data generated from interviews, questionnaires and classroom observations facilitated triangulation to ensure consistency across the findings.

A mixed methods approach was considered the most suitable approach for this study because of the flexibility it provided to address the research questions and objectives of this study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) define the core characteristics of mixed methods research.

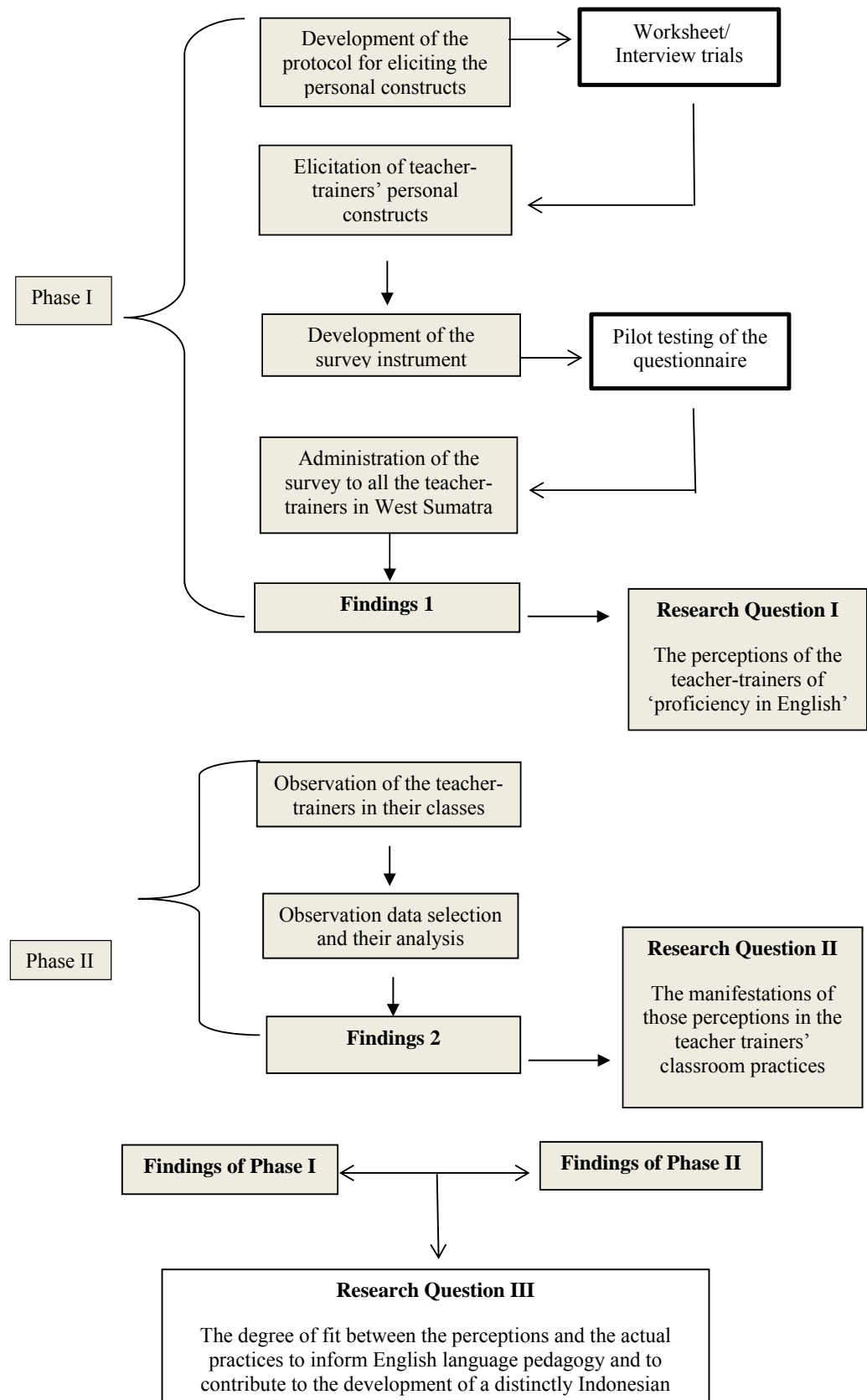
...it focuses on collecting and analysing and mixing both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p.5)

Mixed methods research requires consideration of what is being mixed (methods, methodologies, or types of research), where the mixing occurs (in data collection, data analysis), the scope of the mixing (from statistical data to worldviews), the purpose or rationale for mixing (breadth, triangulation, corroboration) and research

direction (bottom-up, top-down, a core component). In other words, mixed methods research is not limited to certain aspects of research, nor simply the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, but covers broader components.

This study used a multiphase design in which two distinct phases were sequentially linked. Each phase was designed to address Research Question 1 (What are the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English?') and Research Question 2 (How are those perceptions manifested in the teacher-trainers' training practices?). The findings of these two phases were then examined to address the third and final research question (How does the degree of fit between the teacher-trainers' perceptions and their training practices inform English language teaching pedagogy and how does it contribute to the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English?). The overall research process in this study is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1: The Schematic Diagram of the Overall Research Process



3.2. Phase One of the Research Process

Step 1.a: A review of the literature was conducted to enable the design of an appropriate instrument for eliciting teacher-trainers' personal constructs of the concept under study – English proficiency. Two interview trials were conducted to refine the interview instrument which was finally developed into a set of worksheets within an interview protocol (see Appendix 1).

Step 1.b: Qualitative data collection involved two sessions. Firstly, twelve teacher-trainers from English Teacher Education Programs at universities and teachers' colleges in West Sumatra, Indonesia, were each asked to complete a worksheet. In the second session, the participants were interviewed focussing on the responses provided in their worksheets.

Step 1.c: Interview data were transcribed and analysed by a constant comparison method and keywords-in-context identification. From these data, a preliminary model was constructed to inform the development of the questionnaire items.

Step 2.a: A questionnaire survey instrument was subsequently designed based on the interview data and the constructed model. Two pilot testings of the questionnaire were conducted to refine the questionnaire items before its distribution (see Appendix 3).

Step 2.b: The questionnaire was administered to a larger population of 120 teaching staff within the English Teacher Education Program at teachers' colleges and universities throughout West Sumatra, Indonesia.

Step 2.c: Data from the closed questions in the questionnaire were analysed using descriptive statistics. The qualitative data from the open-ended questions matched to the model.

Step 3: The results of the interview and questionnaire data analysis were then formulated into findings statements. Finally, the key findings were summarised for addressing Research Question 1.

3.2.1 Development of the Interview Protocol

The instrument for collecting qualitative data adopted the principles of the repertory grid technique. While originally developed within the field of clinical psychology, the repertory grid technique (Kelly 1955) has long been recognised as a flexible method for eliciting personal constructs and has been included in different methodologies for a diverse range of research purposes, for example, investigations of student assessment (Elander 2003), examinations of environmental cognition (Downs 1976), and attitudes towards technological developments in mathematics software (Kurz 2011). In a study of language teaching cognition, a repertory grid interview was used as an interview strategy to elicit verbal commentaries in which individuals exercised choices in assigning meanings which were embodied in their personal constructs (Borg, 2006, p.194).

According to Fransella and Bannister (1977, p. 2), the repertory grid technique is a way of exploring implicit theories. They claim that every human has implicit theoretical beliefs or constructed sub-systems which form their personal construct system. Terrill and Flitman (2002) define a repertory grid more simply, as “an interviewing method for eliciting people’s ideas or opinions about some aspect of reality, expressed in their own personal terminology” (p.2). Huff (1990) describes it as a tool for understanding and describing an individual’s cognitive content or their constructs about a particular topic. The repertory grid method also enhances data collection by enabling participants to use their own terminology. In this study, the repertory grid technique was used to identify participants’ constructs of ‘proficiency in English’.

In repertory grid principles, there are two main components: *constructs* and *elements* that require definition. Kelly (1955) defines *constructs* as ways of construing the world (p. 6). Coshall (2000, p.86) describes *constructs* as individuals’ personal interpretations and assessments of the environment around them. In this study,

teacher-trainers' descriptions of the qualities of 'proficiency in English' became the *constructs*.

The next important term is the *elements*, which according to Terrill and Filtman (2002, p.2), are the entities about which individual's hold opinions. Kelly (1955) defines elements as "the things or events which are abstracted by a construct and are seen as one of the formal aspects of a construct" (p.135). In this study, the elements were informed by the literature as per Step 1 above, in advance of the interview, without input from the participants. According to Wright (2008, p. 755), supplying elements in the grid interviews has the advantage of being more efficient in terms of time and effort, even though it introduces a degree of researcher intrusion. In this study, however, it ensured that the participants could focus their responses on issues relevant to the investigation. In addition, Jankowicz, (2004, p. 32) supports the idea that when supplied, elements are used as common denominators, and facilitate better comparison of different grids in further analysis. Considering the benefits of supplied elements, the literature was reviewed to deduce these.

In this study, nine elements relating to the construct 'proficiency in English' were chosen from the literature. Although not exhaustive, these elements were representative of the construct of 'proficiency in English' within theoretical linguistics, and within the Standard English and World Englishes perspectives.

The interview protocol underwent two trials (Step 1a). In each trial, an analysis was conducted to assess the effectiveness of the instrument and amendments were subsequently made to generate the final set of items. In the pilot trials, the elements were presented in sets of three. Participants were asked to describe a way in which two of the elements were similar and different from a third element. This strategy was in accordance with Fransella and Bannister's (1977, p.14) triadic method for eliciting the constructs. From the two trials, a modified repertory grid instrument was constructed using worksheets that were integrated into the interview protocol (see Appendix 1 for the worksheet).

In the final instrument, the nine elements were arranged into 84 different triads. The nine elements describing language proficiency are presented in Table 1 with explanations of their meanings and origins.

Table 1: The Elements of Repertory Grid Technique Used in the Worksheet

Elements	Explanations of the elements
A. Mastering linguistic competence.	Linguistic competence is the native speaker's system of linguistic knowledge. It is a tacit knowledge of language in an individual's mind. This notion was proposed by Chomsky as a foundation for his generative grammar (Chomsky, 1965; Fernandez & Cairns, 2011).
B. Mastering grammatical and sociolinguistic competence.	Grammatical and sociolinguistic competence was proposed by Hymes (1972) who put forward the concept of communicative competencies in language proficiency.
C. Mastering four dimensions of communicative competence – linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence.	Canale and Swain (1980) were the first scholars who presented the notion of <i>communicative competence</i> as the extended concept of language components which facilitate L2 education.
D. Mastering BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skill) for daily life use and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) for academic settings.	Cummins (1983) made a distinction between two components of proficiency which influence the syllabi and methodologies of teaching practitioners in communicative language teaching.
E. Mastering linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic	Bachman and Palmer (1982) proposed linguistic, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic competence as components of

competence.	communicative proficiency. This notion is used by test developers and teaching practitioners as referential meaning.
F. Performing well in some defined tasks that use language.	This assertion is based on the concept of proficiency that has been used by teaching practitioners as a guide for developing course objectives, contents, and outcomes. In language testing four discrete skills are assessed—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This element was taken from language learning theory that claims language learners learn any language by going through the four skills-sequence (Szecsy, 2008).
G. Using English of educated native speakers of the dominant varieties (e.g. British and American English)	This notion is based on the view of Standard English that claims extreme prescriptive rules of English language use based on <i>exonormative</i> forms of English or English norms originating in Inner Circle Countries and used in the Expanding Circle countries (Melchers & Shaw, 2011).
H. Using English based on the local norms	This notion was derived from World English scholars who claim that a proficient speaker uses English based on the local norms or <i>endonormative</i> forms of English or the English norms that have been developed and used in Outer Circle countries (Kirkpatrick, 2007).

I. Mastering <i>exonormative</i> and <i>endonormative</i> forms of English	This notion was derived from a post-modern understanding of communication (Canagarajah, 2006). It proposes that a proficient language learner has the ability to shuttle and negotiate different varieties of English for specific purposes, functions, and discourse in specific communities.
--	--

I. Worksheets/Interviews - Trial I

A number of preparations were made for the first worksheet trial. Firstly, the triads were prepared using nine cards in which each element was written. Each card was labelled with a capital letter and the cards were arranged into combinations of three, giving 15 combinations of triads for each participant, for example: ADH, BFG, CFI, GHI, ADG, BEH, AFG, ECI, etc. The nine elements were arranged in different combinations. Each triad consisted of three elements in which no arrangement was similar, for example ABC, CBA, or BCA were considered as one triad. ABD contained one different element and therefore belonged to another triad with different combinations. By using this combination system, 9 elements were arranged and resulted in 84 different triads.

Participants were trained in the process of eliciting personal constructs by conducting an *explanatory pre-activity*, using an example of the triad with three elements that were not related to the topic of this study (see Appendix 1 for the pre-activity explanatory stage). Once familiar with the triadic method, they were given the actual study worksheets. Participants' comments while articulating their constructs were tape recorded and notes were taken to record their reasoning behind the choices between similar and different elements. The whole process was conducted in English, the participants' L2.

A number of problems were encountered which required the following adjustments:

1. Changing the wording of some questions;
2. Separating the written session (worksheets) and the ethnographic interview;

3. Providing additional information on the specific linguistic terms used in the elements;
4. Clarifying participants' comments in Indonesian during the interview;
5. Reducing the number of triads for each participant to 7, with the different sets spread across participants.

II. Worksheets/Interviews - Trial 2

The second trial of the interview process addressed previous amendments and resulted in further refinements which included:

1. Providing an Indonesian translation of all of the elements and instructions;
2. Using more colloquial expressions during the follow-up interview;
3. Allowing participants to use an either Indonesian or English.

It was found that after this second trial, all of the encountered problems had been resolved and the modified worksheets were ready to be used.

3.2.2 Interview Data Collection

According to Baumann and Adair (1992), an ethnographic interview “provides a disciplined way to discover and record people’s experiences and how they interpret them” (p.12). In this study, the follow-up interview provided an opportunity for participants to clarify their responses to the worksheet. The interviews also informed the development of the large scale questionnaire. For this purpose, participants were asked why they had preferred one construct over another. The interview process took approximately 15 to 25 minutes for each participant. Participants were free to use either Indonesian or English and to code mix and code-switch if they so wished.

3.2.3 Sampling Frame

The study employed a purposive sampling technique to ensure that respondents had English language teaching experience and educational qualifications in teaching English. Choosing participants with experience and educational background is in accordance with Borg’s (2006, p. 283) claim that personal history and specific

experience of classrooms may define and shape teachers' perceptions. The criteria for the selection of the participants were:

- a) All participants were teacher-trainers who currently work in English Teacher Education Programs at teachers' colleges and universities in West Sumatra province, Indonesia.
- b) All participants had education degrees in teaching English. They were therefore assumed to have knowledge of the subject matter, the English language, and the pedagogical content required for teaching English in the Indonesian context.

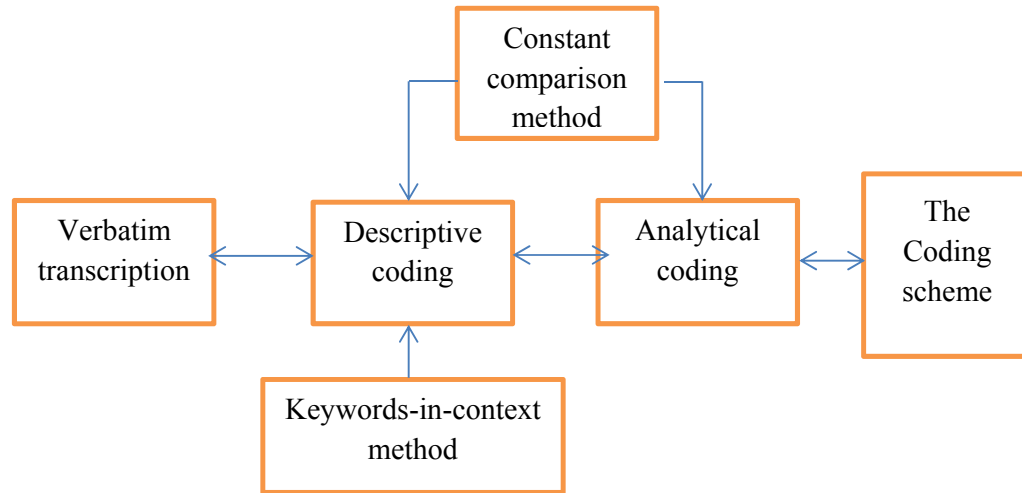
Participants were then fitted within the schema of length of experience viz. less than 5 years, 5 to 10 years, and more than 10 years. This schema was chosen to identify whether any differences would appear between inexperienced and more experienced teacher-trainers' perceptions of English language proficiency. Twelve participants were recruited for the interviews. The participants were given seven triads each, that is, the 84 different combinations of triads were divided equally amongst them.

In addition, convenience sampling that selects participants, who were accessible and willing to participate (Bataglia, 2008), was employed. The teacher-trainers were approached personally after seeking permission from the head of their teacher education programs.

3.2.4 Interview Data Analysis

All interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim. The content was analysed inductively. The process of analysing interview data in order to develop the coding scheme is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The Process of Analysing Interview Data



Two data analysis tools were applied in analysing the worksheet and interview data in order to obtain a more in-depth understanding, as suggested by Leech and Onwuegbuzie, (2007, p. 560). The methods employed were keywords-in-content and constant comparison.

The keywords-in-context analysis is described by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007, p. 566) as the analysis of specific words that appear to be less rich in information. This means that a certain word may have different meanings in different contexts. In this study, the meanings of relevant words or phrases as understood by Indonesian teachers of English were included. In other words, not only was the denotative meaning of the words considered, but also any connotative meanings specific to an Indonesian context.

The constant comparative method involves the assignment of codes that reflect conceptual relationships (see Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ryan & Bernard, 2000; Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2007). This method was used to record recurring themes. Codes were then grouped into categories that share characteristics (Saldana, 2009, p.8).

Two types of coding were used to categorise the data. These were descriptive coding for denoting what the participants wrote and said, and analytical coding to categorise descriptive codes into higher level themes (see Saldana, 2009). Thus, a theme was formed after clustering the explicit categories generated from the coded ideas. This

enabled an overall hierarchical model to be developed (see Table 2 on page 68 of this report).

3.2.5 Development of the Questionnaire

The qualitative exploratory data gathered from the initial 12 participants was the source for preparing the item pool for the questionnaire. Two types of items were used: closed-response and open-response. By using two types of questions, any reluctance to write answers was avoided. According to Dornyei (2010), the ratio of completion of open-ended questions is low compared with closed-response items. Nonetheless, open-ended questions can provide an opportunity for respondents to elaborate on their specific descriptions of ‘proficiency in English’. Therefore, open-ended questions followed each closed-response item to provide an opportunity to add further information (see Appendix 2 for the questionnaire).

Closed questions were constructed with contingencies. If participants responded positively, they were directed to multiple-choice sets which enabled them to expand on their response (Dornyei, 2010). Multiple choice items with more than one option were designed to cover the specific qualities of ‘proficiency in English’ so that respondents had ready-made options from which to choose.

The pools of definitions of ‘proficiency in English’ were derived from the worksheets and comments from subsequent interviews which were coded and categorised, as noted above. These categories informed the wording of questionnaire items. For example, participants were invited to agree or disagree that ‘proficiency in English’ involves *the ability to use English based on the application of exonormative [English from the dominant varieties- British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English] rules for the use of English language?* A ‘yes’ response referred the participant to a further set statements describing the *application of exonormative rules for the use of English language*.

Two pilot tests of the questionnaire were conducted and the instrument further refined before final distribution among the larger population of the teacher-trainers in West Sumatra province, Indonesia.

Initial piloting was conducted using several English teacher-trainers from Indonesia who were pursuing their post-graduate studies in Perth, Australia. They completed the survey and were then asked about any difficulties in filling in the survey. Their feedback included difficulty understanding the syntactic complexity of some statements; some found the English difficult to understand; there was confusion as to whether they should answer in English or Indonesian. As a result, the structure of some statements was simplified; Indonesian translations were included and respondents were invited to use either their L1 or their L2.

A second pilot testing was conducted to ascertain any other difficulties. It was noted that the layout of the survey needed improvement; participants wanted an option not to provide information on their qualifications or experience; and more information was required about the aims of the survey. With the feedback incorporated into the survey the final version of the instrument was ready for circulation. (See Appendix 2)

3.2.6 Respondents

Potential respondents were all English teacher-trainers at universities and teacher colleges in West Sumatra province, Indonesia, listed on the Higher Degree Education Directorate of the Department Education Indonesia database. This amounted to approximately 150 active English teacher-trainers. The exact number was difficult to ascertain because some of those listed were pursuing further studies and not actively teaching at the time of the data collection. However, those who were pursuing postgraduate studies inside West Sumatra province could be contacted. Some teachers also taught at two or three different teacher colleges or universities and a number were not permanently employed but hired on a contractual basis. The questionnaire was finally distributed to 120 teacher-trainers in West Sumatra. The respondents received a hard copy of the questionnaire and were given two weeks to complete and return it to the head of English in their institutions that helped in the distribution and collection of the questionnaire. This was done in April 2013 with 77% (92 out of 120) respondents returning the questionnaire.

3.2.7 Questionnaire Data Analysis

The results from the questionnaire were justify the ‘attributes’ of the teacher-trainers’ conceptual understandings of the construct ‘proficiency in English’ as established in the preliminary model. The quantitative data were analysed using numerical counts (or frequencies) and percentages (Taylor-Powell, 1996). Responses from the open-ended questions were analysed with reference to the model. The information from the questionnaire supported the modelled conceptual understandings of ‘proficiency in English’ which became the basis for the observation of the teacher-trainers’ classroom practices.

3.3 Phase Two of the Research Process

Observations in Indonesian teacher-trainers’ classrooms were conducted to collect data for addressing Research Question 2 (How are those perceptions [of proficiency in English] manifested in the teacher-trainers’ training practices?). Observation provides direct evidence of behaviours, it is non-intervention, and it provides a large amount of descriptive data (Borg, 2006, p. 227).

Nonetheless, it was acknowledged that conducting observations has several weaknesses, such as observer paradox, an issue raised by Labov in the 1960s. For example, the presence of an observer might influence participants who would speak or act less naturally during the data collection process. To minimise this impact, attention was given to methodological dimensions such as defining the researcher’s role and determining the scope of the observation (Borg, 2006, p. 230). For example, the teacher-trainers were given a preliminary experience of being video-recorded to reduce the effect of observer paradox. During the observations, environmental and contextual factors were noted in field notes. According to Gobo (2008), using video footage as an extension of the direct observational techniques has the advantage of enabling a more detailed analysis. In addition, video recording provides the ability to revisit the same event for repeated observation and analysis (Ratcliff 2003). The video recording was conducted overtly and participants were advised that the observations were for research purposes only. They were also given a general information sheet. However, the specific details of the data to be analysed were not

disclosed to avoid the possibility of influencing the teachers' behaviour (Fine & Sandstorm, 1988 in Borg, 2006, p. 238). All of the participants signed consent forms.

Purposive and convenience sampling was also used for recruiting the teacher-trainers as participants for the observations. Only four teachers interviewed in the first phase were available to take part in the observation phase of the study. Other interviewees were either not currently teaching because they were pursuing their higher education, or they were reluctant to be observed. However, a number of other teacher-trainers who had initially been approached for the study were willing to become participants. A total of twelve self-selected teacher-trainers signed on and were videotaped for one hour in their classrooms.

Phase Two of the research process included five steps.

Step 1: Preliminary observations were conducted in the teacher-trainers' classrooms. The aim of this initial non-participant observation was to familiarise the participants with the recording process and to make field notes of relevant contextual information, namely, the location, the date, the students, the experience and educational qualification of the teacher-trainers, and the unit or the subject matter.

Step 2: Sixty minute video recordings were conducted to capture the twelve teacher-trainers' classroom practice. Based on the preliminary observations, a session of sixty minutes was sufficient to capture a range of classroom practice. There were no aesthetic considerations made during filming: the camera recorded events from a fixed point in the room and only focused on the teachers' activities.

Step 3: Preliminary content analysis was conducted to select representative events covering the teachers' pedagogic actions for the following analysis.

Step 4: The samples of the video footage, using the Multimodal Analysis Video Software, were then analysed for evidence of the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' [based on Phase One findings] which were made manifest [or not] in their classroom practice. Other facets, namely, the content of their dialogue and the language of

delivery (English or Indonesian or a regional dialect) were also coded and their frequencies counted.

Step 5: Findings were formulated and examples of data selected as supporting evidence. The findings of this phase of the study showed how the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' were/were not made manifest in their classroom practices.

3.3.1 Selection of the Observation Data and Their Analysis

Language teachers use language for their pedagogic practice and also for other responsibilities such as organising students, controlling behaviour, and monitoring progress. All of these activities constitute "teacher talk" (Mercer, 2001, p.243). Given the aims of Research Question 3 (How does the degree of fit between the teacher-trainers' perceptions and their training practices inform English language teaching pedagogy and how does it contribute to the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English?), only pedagogical actions were selected and extracted from the video footage. In this study, these are called 'functional activities' and exist within the teacher-trainers' talk and dialogue with their students. This sort of teacher-talk was extracted from the observation data.

While selecting representative data, an abductive approach was employed for the development of the categories of events. The abductive approach has been described by Coffey and Atkinson (1996) as:

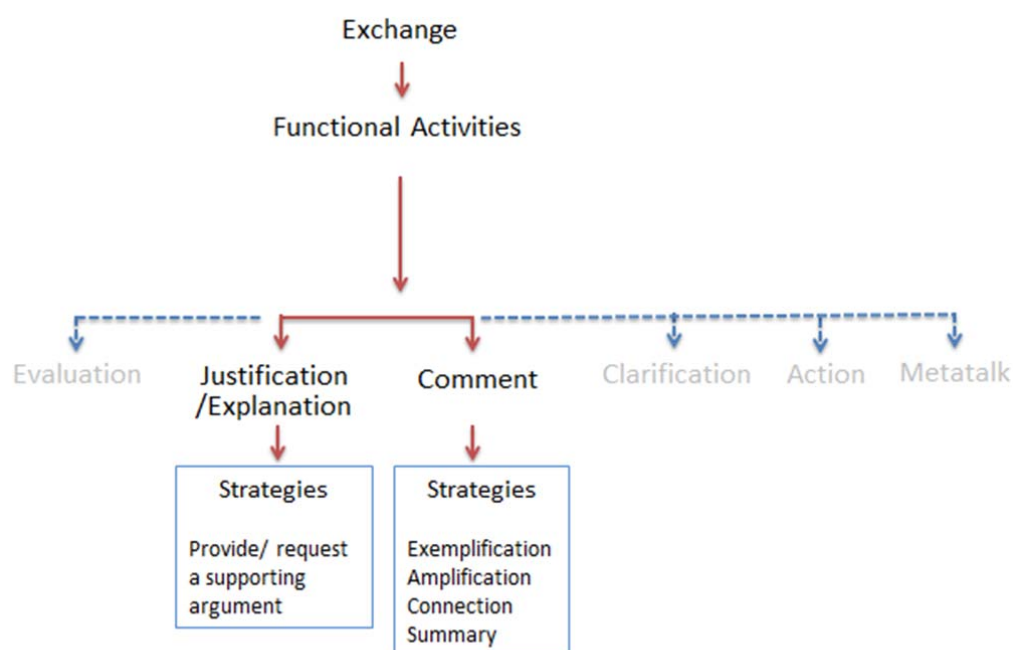
... inferences [that] seek to go beyond the data themselves, to locate them in explanatory or interpretive frameworks. The researcher is not content to try to slot them into existing ideas, for the search includes new, surprising, or anomalous observations. On the other hand, such strange phenomena are not used only to disconfirm existing theories; they are used to come up with new configurations of ideas. There is thus a repeated interaction among existing ideas, former findings and observations, new observations, and new ideas ... (p. 156)

Therefore, in this Phase the existing model previously developed from the literature, the interviews and the questionnaire was reviewed in the light of each video-recorded event. Content analysis (Cole 1988) was used deductively and inductively

as a method of analysing the verbal communication of the teacher-trainers in their classrooms.

The first process of the content analysis was the selection of the representative data by identifying the functional activities. For this, Wells' (2005) coding scheme was used. Although his system included various coding devices, *commodity* was the device adopted for the purpose of this study. *Commodity* refers to what is 'exchanged', either 'information' or 'goods and services' (Halliday, 1984) and occurs by way of consecutive *moves* (called Functional Activities in this study) such as initiation, response, and follow-up and which has its origins in Mehan's (1979) Initiation-Response-Evaluation (I-R-E) model. According to Wells (2005, p.10), *moves* may consist of one or more *acts* (called Strategies in the current study). Guided by Wells' analysis the following coding system was developed for this study. Figure 3 below shows a diagrammatic interpretation of this system.

Figure 3: Coding System informed by Wells (2005)



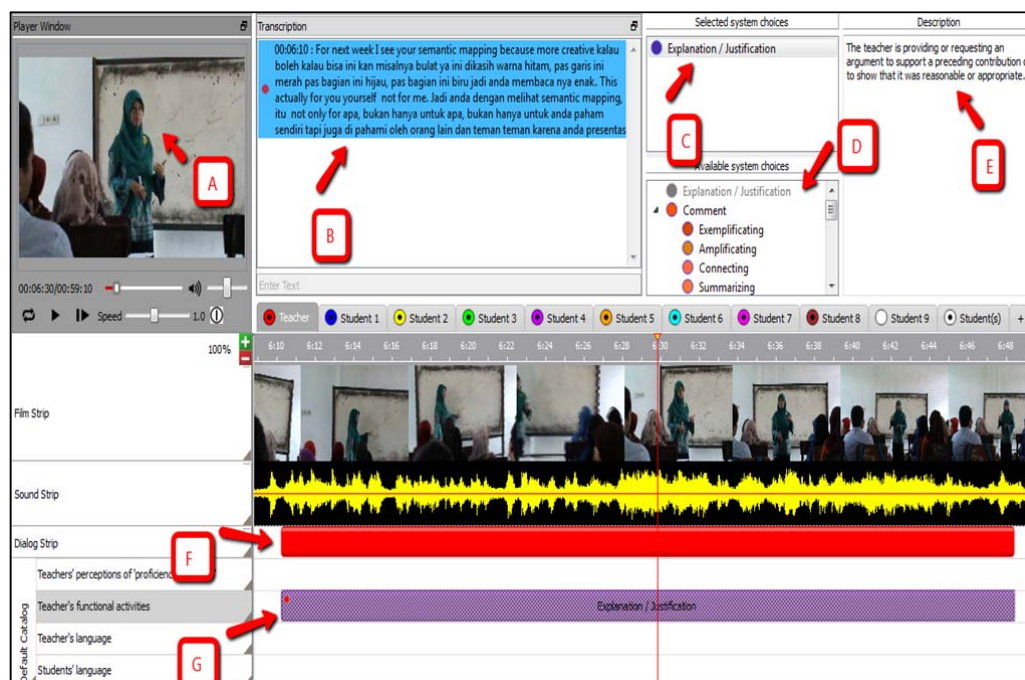
In this study, the analysis of the teacher-trainers' exchange information with students resulted in four prevalent functional activities, namely *justification/explanation*, *comment*, *evaluation*, and *clarification*. The most frequent functional activities were *explanations/justifications* and *comments*. Their average occurrence was higher than

other activities with 30% and 19% respectively, while *evaluation* and *clarification* were around 2%. Hence the analysis focused on the two former activities, as shown by the highlighting in Figure 3.

Next the content of these functional activities was analysed to identify whether evidence of the construct ‘proficiency in English’ supported either of the components of Theme 1 or Theme 2 of the previous model (see Table 2 page 68). The next process in the content analysis of functional activities was to identify which of those functional activities matched the ‘competence’ or ‘performance’ attributes of the model.

Multimodal Analysis Video Software developed by O'Halloran (2013) was used to retrieve the data, code, organise and visualise the salient points in the video footage. Through this software, the percentage of the frequency of each category was calculated. The software display for analysing teacher's practice is presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4: The Display of Multimodal Analysis Video Software



The components of the software display in Figure 4 are described below:

- A. Video footage of the teacher-trainer in which the functional activity was conducted;
- B. Video transcription of the teacher-trainer's talk that occurred during the functional activity;
- C. The coded teacher-trainer's functional activity as it occurred;
- D. The list of the functional activities;
- E. The description of the chosen functional activity in the specific scene;
- F. The length of the teacher-trainer's talk calculated as a percentage of the 60 minute recording time.
- G. The type and length of the functional activity calculated as a percentage of the 60 minute recording time.

3.4 Establishing of the Degree of Fit between Findings of Phase One and Phase Two

The findings from the two sequential phases of study were used to ascertain the degree of fit between perceptions of 'proficiency in English' and actions in the classroom. This addressed Research Question 3 (How does the degree of fit between the teacher-trainers' perceptions and their training practices inform English language teaching pedagogy and how does it contribute to the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English?). To assess the degree of fit, the selected observation data were matched with the model from Phase One of the study. Any consistency or inconsistency between conceptual understandings of 'proficiency in English' and classroom practice were noted. During this process, contextual factors were taken into consideration. Contexts mediate the relationship between language teachers' mental state and their classroom practice and are important when comparing the theoretical and practical issues of language teaching (Borg in Birello, 2012). For example, classroom conditions involving large numbers of students, the pressure of attaining curriculum outcomes or the students' levels of English may have influenced language teachers' divergence from the theoretical underpinning of their practice.

3.5 Summary

This study employed a sequential exploratory mixed-methods research design within an interpretive framework. Two phases of study applying heuristic values were designed to collect data regarding teacher-trainers' conceptual understandings and their actual classroom practices. First, interviews for collecting qualitative data were conducted. The information obtained through 12 individual interviews was used to develop a follow-up questionnaire which was distributed to a larger cohort of teacher trainers in West Sumatra province, Indonesia. The responses of the interviews and questionnaire were then formalised as the findings of Phase One of the study. Phase Two was implemented to collect observation data focusing on the teacher-trainers' classroom practices. 12 teacher-trainers' activities were videotaped in their classrooms. Relevant activities which might or might not manifest their conceptual frameworks of 'proficiency in English' were captured in this data. The degree of fit between the findings of Phase One and Two constituted the final stage of the study.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS OF PHASE ONE

The findings of Phase One of the study which are relevant to Research Question 1 (What are the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English'?) are presented in this chapter.

The qualitative data collection began with an exploration of 12 participants' constructs of 'proficiency in English'. This was followed by a written survey distributed to a larger population of teacher-trainers in West Sumatra, Indonesia. The qualitative data from the individual interviews and the questionnaire were analysed using content analysis. The questionnaire data were then analysed quantitatively (after Taylor-Powell, 1996) to establish the frequency of the respondents' answers to further substantiate the preliminary model of the construct 'proficiency in English' developed from the interview protocol. To this end, the percentage occurrences in each category were then used to determine the most prevalent descriptions of this construct as understood by the participating teacher-trainers. Finally the model incorporating the major components and attributes of the construct 'proficiency in English' was substantiated.

4.1 Findings from the Interview Data

In Phase One of the research process (see Step 1a, 1b, 1c in Methodology Chapter, page 40 of this report), an interview protocol containing worksheets and follow-up questions (see Appendix 1) along with the open-ended questions of the survey (see Appendix 2) were employed to elicit participants' comments on the construct 'proficiency in English'.

The following extracts from original quotes illustrate the impetus for a thematic division based on the English language norms considered appropriate for a construct of proficiency. As the interview data was in Indonesian, a literal translation or gloss was not provided because this would not encompass connotative meanings. Instead, an English translation is provided.

4.1.1 Proficiency Involves Exonormative ‘Competence’

The following construct refers to a need for exonormative [the English of Inner Circle countries (Kachru, 1986; Kachru & Nelson, 1996)] knowledge and native speaker ability rather than endonormative forms:

...untuk cakap dalam berbahasa Inggris itu kita tidak hanya sekedar menguasai struktur, arti struktur Bahasa itu sendiri, tapi kan kita juga harus mengetahui bagaimana masyarakat pengguna Bahasa itu menggunakan bahasanya,...

(To be proficient in English, we do not only master the structure of English language but also have to know how the English speakers use their language)

(Participant E, Transcript 5, page 16, lines 21-23)

In contrast, this next construct of proficiency takes into consideration the context of language use:

...proficiency dalam Bahasa, saya rasa dibahasa mana saja tidak hanya berpatok tatanan Bahasa betul, tapi kita harus melihat dimana situasi, situasi tempatnya seperti apa

(I think language proficiency does not only refer to grammatical rules but also we have to consider the contexts)

Participant L, Transcript 12, page 37, lines 23-25)

For others, the construct of proficiency contained further interrelated components with ‘knowledge of’ and ‘knowledge of how to’ viewed as a necessary prerequisite to applying language. This relationship is exemplified in the following quote and suggests a division between ‘competence’ and ‘proficiency’:

Apabila seseorang menguasai kompetensi linguistik maka dia juga akan mudah melakukan atau menerapkan keterampilan dalam berbahasa Inggris.

(When someone mastering linguistic “competence” [knowledge of language], it will be easier for him/ her to do or to apply English language skills)

(Participant J, Transcript 10, page 31, lines 27-29)

a) Proficiency Requires ‘Performance’ Using Prescribed Exonormative Forms of English

The data above showed a strong bias towards the view of proficiency as having ‘competence’ in the exonormative rules of English. Three main attributes were also evident in the ‘performance’ of this construct of proficiency: i) Adhering to the prescribed grammatical rules in writing; ii) Using prescribed academic English in academic contexts; and iii) Speaking like L1 English speakers.

i) Adhering to the prescribed grammatical rules of writing

The following quote shows evidence of the strong bias towards ‘correctness’ or mastering the English of Inner Circle countries, that is, learners must write English based on the rules of American or British English.

...Secara tertulis mengikuti *kaidah-kaidah yang benar...*

(In writing, accurate norms or rules of language should be followed)

(Participant A, Transcript 1, page 3, line 15)

ii) Using prescribed academic English in academic contexts.

The content of this attribute drew strongly on prescribed academic English involving the exonormative rules in particular:

...profisiensi dalam bahasa Inggris, atau saya lebih *menekankan* ke tes profisiensinya, itu lebih untuk ke *akademik proporsi* atau academic setting

(‘Proficiency in English’, I would like to focus its meaning on English proficiency tests for academic purposes...)

(Participant C, Transcript 3, page 9, lines 16-18)

...ketika kita diuji tentang kemampuan Bahasa Inggris untuk akademik, latar belakang akademik, memang kita tidak apa artinya apa artinya kita tidak bisa lepas dari struktur yang baku...

(When our ability is being tested in academic context, we are strictly relating to prescribed norms)

(Participant B, Transcript 2, page 7, lines 21-23)

For some participants this involved an explicit rejection of local variants of English:

Saya tidak memilih menggunakan Bahasa Inggris yang berdasarkan kaedah-kaedah lokal, karena untuk kaedah-kaedah lokal barangkali, tidak terkait dengan kajian tentang linguistic dalam kontek akademis.

(I do not choose to use English based on local norms because it is not related to academic contexts)

(Participant F, transcript 6, page 20, lines 44-46)

As seen in the previous quotes and here, the English of the native speaking educated classes continually appeared in constructs of proficiency:

...untuk penggunaan Bahasa Inggris penutur asli yang terpelajar ni memang untuk mempelajarinya itu agak kesannya bisa dikategorikan sebagai Bahasa yang agak tinggi gitu.

(English of the educated native speakers is regarded as 'Standard English' language)

(Participant G, Transcript 7, page 24, lines 3-5)

These data support a common assumption amongst English language educators in Indonesia that only scholars or highly educated people have the ability to use the prescribed forms in academic contexts. Moreover, by achieving this standard, one is marked as an educated person.

iii) Speaking like L1 English speakers

With regard to oral language, a preference for the exonormative models of spoken British or American English was also evident:

...menggunakan Englishnya versi British... berkiblat pada satu version, satu versi, satu accent mungkin American accent atau British accent

(Modelling our English on one accent either American accent or British accent)

(Participant K, Transcript 11, page 32, lines 36-37)

In these participants' constructs of proficiency the imitation of Inner Circle English language forms was deemed important. Consequently, exonormative English was a major theme in the construct of proficiency in English.

4.1.2. Proficiency Involves Endonormative ‘Competence’

The second theme among the constructs of proficiency included accommodation of the society and context in which English is being used, that is, encompassing endonormative forms. This theme supports the notion that a proficient speaker of English would have the ‘competence’ to successfully communicate with the English speakers of Outer and Expanding Circle countries due to an understanding of language variation. This theme consists of four ‘competence’ or knowledge attributes.

a) Knowing that English varies depending on the situation and context

In this construct a proficient speaker acknowledges the use of standardized or formal English in formal situations and non-formal or non-standardized English in informal situations. The proficient speaker therefore has the skills to adapt their language depending on when and how the situation deems it is used. This informant however implies that endonormative forms of English are ‘ungrammatical’:

... melihat konteks... kapan harus menggunakan yang kaidah [bahasa formal/resmi/ terstandar], kapan yang ndak... dilihat konteksnya...fleksibel...

(It depends on the contexts when we have to use grammatical language and when not to use it, it is based on the context, and it is flexible...)

Participant A, Transcript 1, page 3, lines 25-26)

Therefore, this variability still includes formal academic norms along with other informal communicative situations:

...bukan berarti kita meremehkan akademik, ndak ya, Cuma kadang-kadang dalam berbahasa itu kan istilahnya kan apanya, kayak fleksibel bahasanya tidak harus gramatikal, kalau akademis ini kan memang agak kental, harus kayaknya seperti itu...

(It doesn't mean that we underestimate academics, but sometimes in speaking English, it is flexible. It is not necessary to be grammatical, but in academics, it is necessary)

(Participant A, Transcript 1, page 2, lines 36-38)

...jadi tidak hanya tata bahasa, penggunaan, tapi juga harus mengetahui kapan bahasa itu ditempatkan

(It is not only grammar, its usage but also we have to know when to use it)

(Participant G, Transcript 7, page 22, lines 28-29)

...sifatnya penggunaan Bahasa Inggris untuk berkomunikasi itu sangat situational

(The feature of using English in communication is situational)

(Participant B, Transcript 2, page 6, lines 31-32)

b) Knowing how to communicate with English speakers from different cultures

This knowledge attribute included two ‘performance’ attributes: i) communicating with L1 and non-L1 English speakers and ii) adapting to different varieties of English from different countries.

i) Communicating with L1 and non-L1 English speakers

Responses within this ‘performance’ component focused very much on communicating with both native and non-native speakers of English:

...mampunya kita berkomunikasi antar pribadi atau pun dengan orang lain baik yang berasal dari em...penutur lokal ataupun dari penutur asing ...

(It is an ability to communicate interpersonally with others who are native speakers and non-native speakers...)

(Participant H, Transcript 8, page 24 lines 1-7)

...Kita juga perlu berbahasa Inggris dengan negara-negara yang sudah menggunakan bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua ...

(We need to use English with people in non-English speaking countries who use English as a second language)

(Participant E, Transcript 5, page 13, lines 13-15)

ii) Adapting to different varieties of English from different countries

Some speakers who went so far as to include in the construct of proficiency the use of local norms, thus broadening the scope of this construct to include intercultural communication:

... mampu menggunakan bahasa Inggris berdasarkan kaidah-kaidah lokal yang bukan penutur asli...

(It is an ability to use English based on the local norms of those non-native speakers...)

(Participant B, Transcript 2, page 6, lines 45-46)

c) Knowing how to accommodate different levels of intelligibility

This knowledge attribute was conceptualized with two ‘performance’ attributes: i) accepting non-standard sentence structure in spoken English, and ii) understanding explicit and implicit meanings in spoken English language. The first ‘performance’ attribute was expressed in opinions quite removed from the retention of exonormative rules.

i) Accepting non-standard sentence structure in spoken English

Comments categorised under the endonormative theme even suggested little need for Inner Circle language rules for proficiency in oral communication:

... tapi kalau hanya untuk sekedar berkomunikasi, mungkin, tidak perlu kita mengetahui hal-hal yang lebih spesifik [aturan penyusunan kata dan frase dalam membuat kalimat]...

(If it is only for communication, maybe we do not need to know specific things [prescribed syntactic rules or the syntax of grammatical utterances in speaking])

(Participant E, Transcript 5, page 15, lines 26-26).

Furthermore, this ‘performance’ attribute appeared to be informed by an understanding of the difference between written and spoken English. It also supports the notion that the underlying aim of speech is to make meaning and that correctness may be secondary:

...secara lisan kan kaidah-kaidah itu kadang-kadang kelihatan terlanggar, padahal tidak terlanggar sebetulnya...jadi

kemampuan Bahasa Inggris itu bagaimana kita bisa mengekspresikan ide kita dan itu meaningful...

(In speaking, it seems that it does not follow accurate grammar [the prescribed rules of how to arrange words into sentences] but actually it isn't like that.....so the ability of using English language is how we express our ideas meaningfully)

(Participant A, Transcript 1, page 3, lines 16-19)

ii) Understanding both explicit and implicit meanings in spoken English language.

While the ability to understand explicit meanings in spoken English is clearly a basic requirement in any construct of 'proficiency in English', understanding implicit meaning is a higher level skill, particularly in cross-cultural communication.

... makna percakapan itu akan tergantung pada pragmatik-nya ya, discourse-nya yang lebih, .. apa, konteksnya yang lebih dalam [tersirat]...

(The meanings of utterances in conversation depend on its pragmatics and its discourse...it's the deeper context [implicit meaning]...)

(Participant I, Transcript 9, page 26, lines 32-33)

d) Knowing how to recognise L2 English speakers' identities

This knowledge attribute encompassed two 'performance' attributes: i) Recognising the influences of different local cultures on English forms, and ii) Incorporating first language norms and speech in English usage.

i) Recognising the influences of different local cultures on English forms

Broadly speaking, this attribute involved the recognition of cultural and linguistic influences that serve to create local variants of English. For an L2 speaker this may require a high level of proficiency if they lack familiarity with the particular variant. However in the Indonesian context, English spoken with a Chinese accent would be clearly recognisable, especially among teacher-trainers:

...pengucapannya, pasti akan terbawa ya, lokal kita ini, dialek atau seperti Bahasa Inggris disini seperti Bahasa Inggris Cina ya, mereka masih terlihat Chinese nya gitu...

(In pronunciation, local dialect such as the English of the Chinese will be noticed)

(Participant D, Transcript 4, page 14, lines 15-17)

ii) Incorporating first language norms and speech in English usage

This 'performance' attribute suggested that proficiency in English actually includes the ability to use local forms, that is, to code-switch or change register as required.

...bagaimana pun juga ya, kalau seseorang itu mempelajari Bahasa Inggris pastilah kaedah lokalnya [tata bahasa lokal] terbawa ya, ke dalam bahasa inggrisnya itu...

(It cannot be avoided, if someone learns English, their local norms will be carried into their English usage...)

(Participant D, Transcript 4 page 11 lines 9-10)

However beyond the L1 forms that influence a second language speaker's proficiency, was recognition of the importance of the local pragmatics of language use:

...penggunaan Bahasa Inggris untuk berkomunikasi lebih bagus mungkin kompetensinya itu lebih memiliki dimensi yang lebih luas, misalnya dengan memasukkan, pragmatis [pemakaian bahasa dalam kontek social]... latar belakang kultur...

(Using English for communication is much better to include a broader dimension for example incorporating 'pragmatics' [the use of language in social context] cultural background)

(Participant B, Transcript 2, page 5, lines 12-14)

...menggunakan bahasa inggris tapi tidak sama sekali menghilangkan unsur lokal [tata krama] dari masing-masing negara yang menggunakan, yang mempelajari bahasa inggris tersebut...

(Using English without eliminating local norms of the countries in which English is used and learnt)

(Participant D, Transcript 4, page 12, lines 25-17)

To summarise the key findings from the interview stage of the study, teacher-trainers' construct 'proficiency in English' evoked the following ideas. 'Proficiency in English' includes:

1. Structural knowledge of English and how to apply it in accord with the norms of Inner Circle countries such as Britain and the United States.
2. The application of these exonormative L1 norms in writing and in speaking, particularly in academic contexts.
3. Accommodating and adopting register variation depending on the formality of the context.
4. Accommodating and adopting linguistic variation depending on the L1 background of interlocutors who are involved in the interactions.
5. Being able to understand second language speakers and identify their backgrounds in teacher/trainer contexts.

4.2 Proposed Model of 'Proficiency in English'

The qualitative data from the interviews demonstrated two recurrent themes: those reflecting the importance of exonormative models of English and those accommodating endonormative models of English. Within these themes, responses could be further categorised into attributes that emphasised linguistic knowledge, i.e., 'knowing what' and 'knowing how to'. The 'knowing what' is the knowledge that underlies the speaker's intention when using the language, such as knowledge of the syntactic and pragmatic rules of English, while the 'knowing how to' is the knowledge of when and how to use them appropriately, i.e., 'competence' (Hymes, 1972). A further component of proficiency was the actual application of this knowledge, that is, the practical abilities or skills of English users or the linguistic actions that are performed after internalising the linguistic and pragmatic knowledge, referred to as 'performance' (Chomsky, 1965). Participants' responses also provided descriptions of these components which in this study were considered to be attributes of the endonormative theme within the construct of proficiency. These are represented in the following model.

Table 2: Themes and Attributes of the Construct 'Proficiency in English'

Theme 1		Theme 2	
Exonormative constructs		Endonormative constructs	
<i>Attributes of 'competence'</i>	<i>Attributes of 'performance' of</i>	<i>Attributes of 'competence'</i>	<i>Attributes of 'performance'</i>
I. Knowledge of exonormative rules for the use of English language	a) Adhering to the prescribed grammatical rules of writing	I. Knowing that English varies depending on the situation and context	a) Using standardised or formal English in formal situations and non-formal or non-standardised English in informal situations
	b) Using prescribed academic English in academic contexts	II. Knowing how to communicate with English speakers from different cultures	a) Communicating with L1 and non-L1 English speakers
	c) Speaking like L1 English speakers		b) Adapting to different varieties of English
		III. Knowing how to accommodate different levels of intelligibility	a) Accepting non-standard sentence structure in spoken English b) Understanding explicit and implicit meanings in spoken English language
		IV. Knowing how to recognise L2 English speakers' identities	a) Recognising the influences of different local cultures on English forms b) Incorporating first language norms and speech in English usage.

The validity of this model was tested further by way of a questionnaire.

4.3 Findings from the Questionnaire Data Analysis

In Phase One of the research process (see Step 2a, 2b, 2c in the Methodology Chapter, page 40 of this report), the questionnaire (see Appendix 3 for the questionnaire) was distributed to a larger cohort of teacher-trainers in West Sumatra, Indonesia. The purpose of this survey was to gather further data that may or may not accord with the ‘preferred attributes’ of the construct ‘proficiency in English’ illustrated in the model above. Returned questionnaires were analysed using descriptive statistics to show the frequency of responses. From the 120 questionnaires distributed, 92 (77%) were returned. The demographic information of the 92 respondents who returned the questionnaire is presented in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Respondents by the Length of Experience as Teacher-trainers

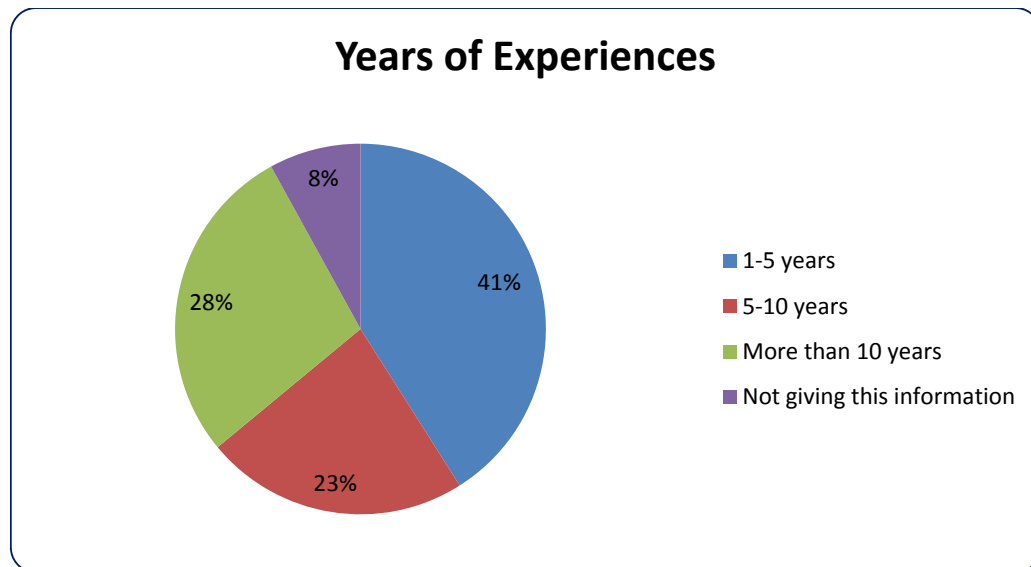
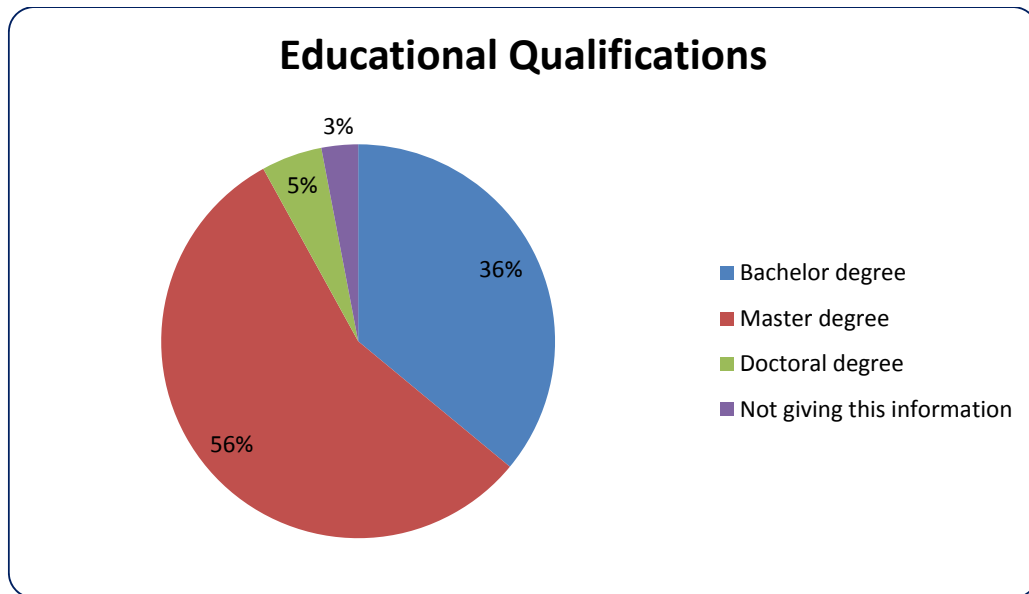


Figure 5 shows the teacher-trainer population who completed the survey were relatively new to the profession. Some 41% of respondents had 5 years or less of experience and 23% less than 10 years, while 28% could be judged as having considerable experience in their roles as teacher-trainers. 8% of respondents chose not to provide this information.

More than a half of the respondents had postgraduate degrees i.e. masters and doctoral degrees - see Figure 6.

Figure 6: The Respondents' Highest Level of Educational Qualifications



While the survey only asked for the latest educational qualification many who had bachelors' degrees were pursuing further postgraduate studies. This is a consequence of the Department of Education of Indonesia having issued a regulation regarding qualifications for tertiary educators. It is expected that by 2015 all university teaching staff will have obtained a higher degree qualification, minimally a Masters degree (Ministerial Decree no.37/2009). Without this requirement, they will be ineligible to teach in tertiary education institutions.

The following tables show participants' responses to the questionnaire items relating to knowledge or competence that reaches 'proficiency in English' and the use of exonormative and endonormative forms of English which served to triangulate the data from the earlier interviews. Table 3a presents data on the general introductory question, while Table 3b presents data that sought to further examine what 'knowledge' of English meant for this cohort.

Table 3a: Responses relating to the knowledge involves in 'proficiency in English'

QUESTION 1: Do you think that proficiency in English involves <i>knowledge of English language</i>?			
Number of responses	Affirmative responses	Negative responses	Unsure
92 (100%)	89 (97%)	2(2%)	1(1%)

Table 3b: Responses on what constitutes knowledge of English

QUESTION 2 - In your opinion, does knowledge of English language include these ideas below?					
Teacher-trainer experience	0-5 years	5-10 years	More than 10 years	Preferred not to tell^a	Total %
Number of responses to Q2	34	25	21	9	89
<i>2a Knowing prescribed rules of English language use</i>	25 (74%)	21 (84%)	17 (81%)	8 (89%)	71 (80%) n=89
<i>2b Knowing how to use the prescribed rules of English language in accordance with those prescribed rules</i>	30 (88%)	23 (92%)	20 (95%)	8 (89%)	81 (88%) n=89
<i>2c Knowing possible communication orientation purposes</i>	21 (62%)	20 (80%)	16 (76%)	5 (56%)	62 (67%) n=89
<i>2d Knowing how to accomplish the possible communication orientation purposes</i>	17 (50%)	19 (78%)	13 (62%)	5 (57%)	54 (%) n=89

^a Since these few respondents could not be categorised in terms of experience, they are not included in subsequent analyses of the data on teaching experience.

Table 3b establishes the basic understanding of what it means to know English in the Indonesian context. The table tells us that both 'knowing what' and 'knowing how' (i.e., 'competence') constitute knowledge of the English language as a whole. The table also contrasts the prescriptive (in this case exonormative) – Questions 2a and 2b - and communicative (in this case endonormative) components of language – Questions 2c and 2d. Interestingly positive responses to the latter two questions were not as frequent for some groups, showing some reluctance to accept endonormative knowledge attributes in understandings of what constitutes knowledge of English. This was most notable among those teacher-trainers with less experience.

The following tables show participants' responses relating to the exonormative and endonormative contrasts in Indonesia. Table 4a shows that the majority of participants supported the notion that proficiency includes exonormative knowledge

Table 4a: Responses relating to exonormative usage

QUESTION 3: <i>Do you think that proficiency in English involves the ability to use English based on the application of exonormative [English from the dominant varieties- British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English] rules for the use of English language?</i>			
Number of responses	Affirmative responses	Negative responses	Unsure
90 (97%)	50 (56%)	25(28%)	15(17%)

Table 4b shows responses to questions which probed further to investigate respondents' commitment to the actual use of exonormative and endonormative forms.

Table 4b: Responses relating to exonormative and usage (cont)

QUESTION 4: <i>In your opinion, does the ability to use English based on the application of exonormative [English from the dominant varieties- British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English] rules for the use of English language include these ideas below?</i>					
Teacher-trainer experience	0-5 years	5-10 years	More than 10 years	Preferred not to tell^a	Total %
Number of responses to Q4	22	17	13	7	59
<i>4a) Writing by using the prescribed grammatical rules of writing</i>	22 (100%)	17 (100%)	13 (100%)	7 (100%)	50 (84%) (n=59)
<i>4b) Using prescribed academic English of the educated people in academic contexts</i>	20 (91%)	16 (94%)	13 (100%)	7 (100%)	56 (93%) (n=59)
<i>4c) Using L1 English speakers' accents</i>	12 (55%)	7 (41%)	7 (54%)	5 (71%)	31 (53%) (n=59)
<i>4d) Using L1 English speakers' dialects</i>	7 (32%)	2 (12%)	3 (23%)	2 (29%)	14 (24%) (n=59)

^a Since these few respondents cannot be categorised in terms of experience, they are not included in subsequent analyses of the data on teaching experience.

Responses to Question 4 (Table 4b) were generally similar across experience levels for 'writing using prescriptive rules' and for 'speaking like an L1 speaker'. The use of prescribed forms of English gained slightly more support from those with greater experience. A marked lack of support was found to be shared by all three groups

with regard to the incorporation of endonormative dialects and accents (4c and 4d) and this was stronger for the use of dialect than for accent.

Question 5 of the survey sought to garner responses on the adaptation of English depending on situation and context.

Table 5a: Response to the use of English in formal and informal contexts

QUESTION 5: Do you think that proficiency in English involves adaptation of English use depending on the situation and context?			
Number of responses	Affirmative responses	Negative responses	Unsure
92	86 (97%)	2 (1%)	4 (4%)

Overwhelming support was presented for proficiency when communicating with people of other cultures.

Table 5b: Response to the use of English in formal and informal contexts (cont)

QUESTION 6: In your opinion, does adaptation of English use depending on the situation and context include these ideas below?					
Teacher-trainer experience	0-5 years	5-10 Years	More than 10 years	Preferred not to tell experience^a	Total %
Number of responses to Q 5	35	23	21	7	86
<i>6a. Using standardised or formal English in formal situations</i>	31 (89%)	20 (87%)	20 (95%)	7 (100%)	78 (85%) (n=86)
<i>6b. Using non-standard or informal English for informal situations</i>	25 (71%)	19 (83%)	17 (81%)	5 (71%)	66 (77%) (n=86)

^a Since these few respondents cannot be categorised in terms of experience, they are not included in subsequent analyses of the data on teaching experience.

Table 5b shows us that the majority of respondents see that language variation based on situation and context is an appropriate attribute to include in the construct of proficiency in English. Cross cultural communication was therefore acknowledged, as evident in the following data:

Table 6a: Responses to the need to communicate across cultures

QUESTION 7: Do you think proficiency in English involves <i>the ability to communicate with English users from different cultures</i> ?			
Number of responses	Affirmative responses	Negative responses	Unsure
91	74 (81%)	9 (10%)	8 (9%)

Table 6b: Response to the need to communicate across cultures (cont)

QUESTION 8: In your opinion, does the ability to communicate with English users from different cultures include these ideas below?					
Teacher-trainer experience	0-5 years	5-10 years	More than 10 years	Prefer not to tell ^a	Total %
Number of responses to Q8.	28	20	19	7	74
<i>8a. Exchanging of information or sharing of ideas with L1 English speakers</i>	23 (82%)	18 (90%)	18 (95%)	6 (86%)	65 (88%) (n=74)
<i>8b. Exchanging of information or sharing of ideas with non- L1 English speakers</i>	25 (89%)	17 (85%)	17 (89%)	4 (57%)	63 (85%) (n=74)
<i>8c. Using Exonormative forms of English [English from the dominant varieties- British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English] in their place</i>	15 (54%)	12 (60%)	15 (75%)	4 (57%)	46 (62%) (n=74)
<i>8d. Using Endonormative forms of English [English from the local varieties in Europe, Africa and Asia, e.g. Nigerian English, Chinese English, Indian English, Singapore English, etc.] in their place</i>	8 (29%)	5 (25%)	8 (42%)	4 (57%)	25 (34%) (n=74)

^a Since these few respondents cannot be categorised in terms of experience, they are not included in subsequent analyses of the data on teaching experience.

Table 6b shows that, while it is important to communicate with non-L1 speakers of English, the use of exonormative forms of English in such communication was not supported by all (62%). A small proportion (25%) thus supported the use of local variants.

Table 7a: Response to the need for intelligibility in the construct of proficiency

QUESTION 9: Do you think that proficiency in English requires intelligibility?			
Number of responses	Affirmative responses	Negative responses	Unsure
90	87 (97%)	1 (1%)	2 (2%)

An overwhelming majority of participants saw that intelligibility contributed to the construct of proficiency. The following table provides a breakdown of how participants viewed the attribute of intelligibility.

Table 7b: Response to the attribute of intelligibility

QUESTION 10: In your opinion, does intelligibility include these ideas below?					
Teacher-trainer experience	0-5 years	5-10 years	More than 10 years	Prefer not to tell ^a	Total %
Number of responses to Q 10	35	25	20	7	87
<i>10a. Uttering understandable utterances</i>	28 (80%)	20 (80%)	18 (90%)	6 (86%)	72 (83%) (n=87)
<i>10b. Uttering meaningful ideas</i>	25 (71%)	20 (80%)	19 (95%)	7 (100%)	71 (82%) (n=87)
<i>10c. Accepting spoken English that does not following prescribed rules as long as the meaning is understood</i>	23 (66%)	17 (68%)	11 (55%)	5 (71%)	56 (65%) (n=87)
<i>10d. Demonstrating appropriate responses to inaccurate sentence structures in spoken English</i>	16 (46%)	15 (60%)	15 (75%)	3 (43%)	49 (56%) (n=87)

^a Since these few respondents cannot be categorised in terms of experience, they are not included in subsequent analyses of the data on teaching experience.

Participants strongly supported the production of intelligible structures and meaning supporting this attribute in the model. This was considered more necessary by teachers with greater experience (10a and 10b). This group was also less accepting of utterances using non-prescribed rules, regardless of their intelligibility (55%). By contrast, the groups with the least experience in their roles as teacher-trainers were less likely to include the demonstration of correct responses to such utterances (46%).

Table 8a: Knowledge of L2 English speakers' identities as an attribute of proficiency

QUESTION 11: Do you think that proficiency in English involves L2 English speakers' identities?			
Number of responses to	Affirmative responses	Negative responses	Unsure
88	56 (64%)	14 (16%)	18 (20%)

Respondents were divided on the inclusion of this attribute in a construct of 'proficiency in English' with only 64% providing affirmative answers.

Table 8b: Knowledge and use of L2 English speakers' identities as an attribute of proficiency (cont)

QUESTION 12: In your opinion, do L2 English speakers' identities include these ideas below?					
Teacher-trainer experience	0-5 years	5-10 Years	More than 10 years	Prefer not to tell ^a	Total %
Number of responses to Q12	19	13	17	7	56
<i>12a. Knowing the influences of different local cultures on English forms</i>	14 (74%)	11 (84%)	13 (76%)	6 (86%)	44 (79%) (n=56)
<i>12b. Knowing the existence of English varieties in non-English speaking countries</i>	19 (100%)	12 (92%)	17 (100%)	5 (71%)	53 (95%) (n=56)
<i>12c. Knowing the existence of English varieties in English speaking countries</i>	11 (58%)	13 (100%)	16 (94%)	5 (71%)	45 (80%) (n=56)
<i>12d. Incorporating first language norms and speech in English use</i>	2 (11%)	5 (38%)	3 (18%)	2 (29%)	12 (21%) (n=56)
<i>12e. Using local accent when speaking</i>	2 (11%)	1 (8%)	6 (35%)	2 (29%)	11 (19%) (n=56)

^a Since these few respondents cannot be categorised in terms of experience, they are not included in subsequent analyses of the data on teaching experience.

Table 8b demonstrates that knowing the existence of variation in both English speaking and non-English speakers' countries was important (12b and 12c), although less so for those with the least teaching experience. With that exception, knowledge of existence was rated somewhat more highly than knowledge of the impact of local cultures on English. Questions 12d and 12e address the actual use of these local L1 which is not well supported by this cohort of teacher –trainers.

In the analysis of the respondents' written opinions in open-ended questions in the survey, no new components or themes emerged beyond those that had been established in Step 1c of Phase One study. 32 of the 92 (35%) respondents provided responses to the open-ended questions. Ten of these comments focused on the ability to accommodate endonormative forms: knowing how to communicate with English speakers from different cultures; knowing how to accommodate different levels of intelligibility; and knowing how to recognise L2 English speakers' identities. Of the remaining responses, the application of exonormative rules for the use of English language was the focus.

4.4 Conclusion

Overall, the questionnaire provided support for both the exonormative and endonormative forms of English proposed in the above model of the construct of 'proficiency in English' (see Table 2 page 68). However, in all the above tables, endonormative forms of English were less often supported as a construct of 'proficiency in English' than prescriptive exonormative forms. The different teaching experience groups did sometimes respond in slightly varied ways to items in the questionnaire.

Knowledge of prescribed Inner Circle English forms was supported by all groups, however knowing how to actually communicate using these forms was deemed less important by groups with less teaching experience. All groups supported the need for prescribed grammatical English in writing and in academic contexts. Similarly there was a bias towards L1 English accents, but not necessarily L1 dialects (e.g., American, Australian). Non-standard or endonormative English was considered appropriate for informal situations and appropriate in cross-cultural communication. All teachers agreed that 'proficiency in English' required the production of understandable and meaningful utterances and that accepting English that does not follow prescribed rules although intelligible was also an attribute that should be exercised by proficient English speakers. However teachers were divided on the notion of correcting inaccurate spoken English. Those with the least experience were less supportive of this concept.

In conclusion, throughout the findings of this study has been a noticeable tension between endonormative and exonormative forms of English as part of the construct

of ‘proficiency in English’. Many respondents indicated a limit to which they would accept endonormative forms, for example only in appropriate contexts. Teachers’ years of experience in their roles as teacher-trainers, did not impact consistently on these results and often seemed to be arbitrary.

In the following chapter, findings from the observations of classroom practice which sought manifestation of these attributes of proficiency in English will be presented.

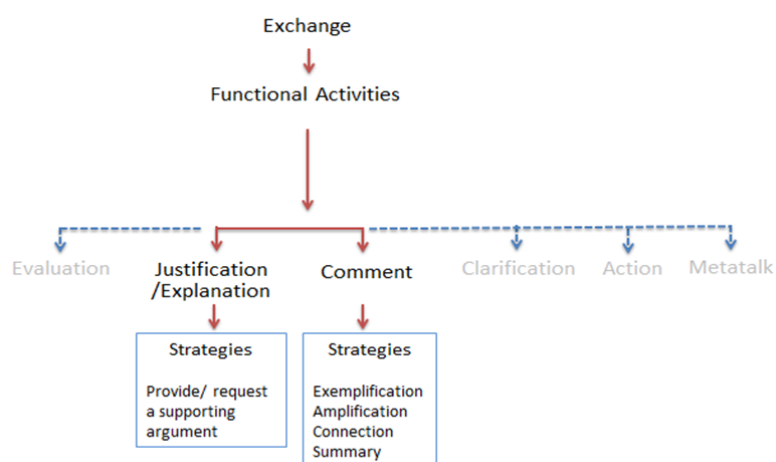
CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS OF PHASE TWO

Classroom observations were carried out on the basis of the Phase One findings to address Research Question 2 (How are those perceptions [of ‘proficiency in English’] manifested in the teacher-trainers’ training practices?). While Phase One of this study addressed teacher-trainers’ perceptions of proficiency in English, Phase Two sought to address how their perceptions were [or were not] manifested in their training practices. In this chapter, the data extracted from video footage illustrate the classroom practice of twelve self-selected teacher-trainers.

As pointed out in the Methodology Chapter, the coding scheme for the classroom observation data was informed by that of Wells (2005). The first process was to select activities reflecting pedagogic practices - called functional activities. After this, profiles of each teacher-trainers’ classroom activities were developed. The second process was to examine whether any of the attributes of the ‘competence’ components within the Phase One model (see Table 2 page 68) were evident in the teacher-trainers’ practice. The final process was to identify whether any of the attributes of the ‘performance’ components within the Phase One model were identifiable in their practice. In this case, the teachers’ own linguistic ‘performance’ was analysed to find evidence of the attributes of exonormative or endonormative constructs of ‘proficiency in English’. Figure 7 below reiterates the coding scheme for this study, developed from Wells (2005) for the purposes of this study.

Figure 7: Coding System (informed by Wells. 2005)



5.1 Manifestation of the Themes and the Attributes of ‘Competence’ of the Construct ‘Proficiency in English’

From analysis of the observation data, it was found that the dominant functional activities were *explanation/ justification* (30%) and *comment* (19%). Selected footage showing these two activities was examined for evidence of manifestations of exonormative and endonormative constructs through mention of the knowledge (‘competence’) attributes in the class content. The frequency of references to exonormative or endonormative ‘competence’ was calculated and is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Percentage of class time devoted to Attributes of ‘competence’

Experience	Participant (pseudonym)	Class type	Students’ Year level	Attributes of Exonormative ‘competence’	Attributes of Endonormative ‘competence’
0.5 years	Burham	Speech	2 nd	8% ⁱ	12%
	Darman	Classroom Management	3 rd	-	-
	Diarto	Listening	2 nd	43%	
	Rukmini	TEFL	3 rd	12%	-
5-10 years	Nanda	Reading	1 st	51%	-
	Herawati	Language Assessment	3 rd	30%	-
	Ridwan	Sociolinguistics	4 th	-	14%
	Maimun	English Grammar	2 nd	72%	-
More than 10 years	Widya	Research	3 rd	-	-
	Yusman	Cross cultural understanding	4 th	-	-
	Fadil	English Grammar	2 nd	38%	-
	Ermin	Instructional design	3 rd	-	-
Average of the percentage				22%	2%

ⁱ These figures represent percentages of time during a one hour class.

The above patterns show that the manifestation of exonormative or endonormative competencies varied across class type. Listening, Reading and Assessment classes

showed that between 30% and 50% of the time was spent on exonormative ‘competence’. Of particular interest is the variation in time spent on these competencies in the different English Grammar classes. Maimun, a teacher with 5-10 experience, spent 72% of the hour long class on transmitting exonormative competencies, while Fadil, with more than 10 years’ experience spent 38% of the time on exonormative forms. In the Sociolinguistics class no time was spent on exonormative English and only 14% on discussing endonormative English. Overall, it is clear from Table 9 that a marked bias towards establishing exonormative forms was evident.

In the following extract, knowledge of exonormative rules for the use of English language is being disseminated:

Teacher: Nah Adverb of time, *everyday* waktunya kalau kita meminta *present*. Kalau meminta *past tense*, *yesterday* misalnya. Kalau untuk *future*, *future* pula waktunya. Kita bisa memakai pola kalimat yang sama, *everyday* ini bisa kita ganti polanya dengan menghadirkan salah satu [unintelligible] . Saya mau pakai *present* apa dulu misalnya. Saya mau ganti *everyday* misalnya.

(Teacher: Now adverb of time, we can use ‘everyday’ if it refers to the present time. If it is used for past tense, for example ‘yesterday’. When it is used for future, we use the future adverb of time. We can use the same sentence pattern, this ‘everyday’ we can replace with [unintelligible] For example, I want to make present and I want to replace ‘everyday’ ...)

Extract from Maimun’s classroom [English Grammar]

Minute: 12:33

In the Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) class, the teacher-trainer informed her students to teach Inner Circle English as follows:

Teacher: ...it is better to use one dialect, one [unintelligent] be consistent. Kalau mau pakai *British* ya *British* saja. Kalau mau pakai *American* ya *American* saja. Jadi ketika anak tu mendengarkan *conversation* juga mencarikan yang sama dengan itu. Kalau mau mengenalkan kedua-duanya anggap yang satu lagi sebagai model pengenalan...

(Teacher: It is better for you to use one dialect, and be consistent on it. If you want to teach *British English* to your students, please only use it. If you want to teach *American English* please only use it. Look for a conversation which

gives model to each variety. If you want to introduce both varieties to your students, inform your students that one variety is the other model.

Extract from Rukmini's classroom (TEFL)

Minute: 39.08

In the Reading class, the teacher-trainer raised the students' awareness about the prescribed grammatical rules of the exonormative forms of English, exemplified as follows:

Teacher: *Is this a sentence or not?* [Point to a sentence on that she wrote on the board] *English is important* [reads the sentence]. Ok kalau dia seandainya sentence [If this is a sentence]. *It's means what? Is there a subject?*

Students: *English*

Teacher: ...yah. *You said that this is a subject. Is that?*

Students: *yes*

Teacher...*because this is a nominal sentence...*

Extract from Nanda's class [Reading]

Minute: 37.18

In the English Language Assessment class, the teacher-trainer reminded her students to teach the 'correct' pronunciation of English words based on the exonormative English, exemplified as follows:

Teacher: ...begitu juga kalau kamu mengucapkan kata yang salah kemudian disuruh anak mengukiti, dia ikuti pula mengucapkan kata yang salah tadi. Makanya hati-hati karena *speaking*, ini *speaking*. Misalnya apa, seperti pisang sajalah. Itukan *simple* itu untuk mengajar anak SD buah-buahan. Apa pengucapan untuk pisang *pronunciation* nya?

(Teacher: ...when you mispronounce the words and then ask your students to follow your pronunciation, your students are then going to mispronounce the words. That's why you should be careful because this is for speaking. For example, the pronunciation of the word 'banana', that seems to be simple for teaching the primary students the name of the fruit. How do you pronounce 'banana'? [student pronounces the word as the teacher-trainer modelled it])

Extract from Herawati's class [English language assessment]

Minute: 47.34

Manifestations of endonormative constructs appeared in the Speech and Sociolinguistics classes. The following example from the Sociolinguistics class encapsulates the attribute ‘knowing that English varies depending on the situation and context’:

Teacher: ...bahasa yang kita hubungkan dengan status sosial, strata ini ya. Ok, bisa kita bandingkan orang yang stratanya berbeda kalau tiba nya di pendidikan sekolah, bahasanya berbeda...

(Teacher: ...language that we relate to social status, social stratification. Ok let's compare people with different social class, different education. Their language will be different...)

Extract from Ridwan's classroom [Sociolinguistics]

Minute: 20:24

In the Speech class, the manifestation of the endonormative ‘competence’ attributes, namely ‘knowing how to accommodate different levels of intelligibility’ was evident. In the following example, the teacher-trainer explained how to develop intelligibility in English:

Teacher: *You need to speak step by step in order that your friends, your partners can understand what you are talking about. Understand. Perhaps I and your friends do not have good ability in listening [unintelligible] so they need to make a long [pronounced this word with length] loading [Students laugh at the way the teacher-trainer pronounce this word] for responding to your arguments.*

Extract from Burhan's classroom [Speech]

Minute: 25:30

However, the manifestation of other endonormative ‘competence’ attributes, namely, ‘knowing how to communicate with English speakers from different cultures’ and ‘knowing how to recognise L2 English speakers’ identities’ were not be found in the recorded video footage. In the Cross Cultural Understanding class, the teacher-trainer only focused on the difference in cultural background between western and eastern communities without relating to cross cultural communication which could require endonormative constructs.

5.2 Manifestation of the Themes and the Attributes of ‘Performance’ of the Construct ‘Proficiency in English’

In the analysis of ‘performance’, the teachers’ own language use in the classroom was considered in relation to the ‘performance’ attributes that were deemed to be included in the construct of ‘proficiency in English’. The analysis focused firstly, on what the teacher-trainers exemplified in writing, and secondly on their oral language. The first ‘performance’ attribute of the exonormative construct, namely ‘adhering to the prescribed grammatical rules of writing’, was clearly identified from what they wrote on the whiteboard. For example, in Figures 8a and 8b [Grammar class], Fadil wrote exonormative comparative forms of English on the board. In Figure 9 Maimun [Grammar class] showed her students the use of adjectival clauses.

Figure 8a: Written demonstration of exonormative comparative forms

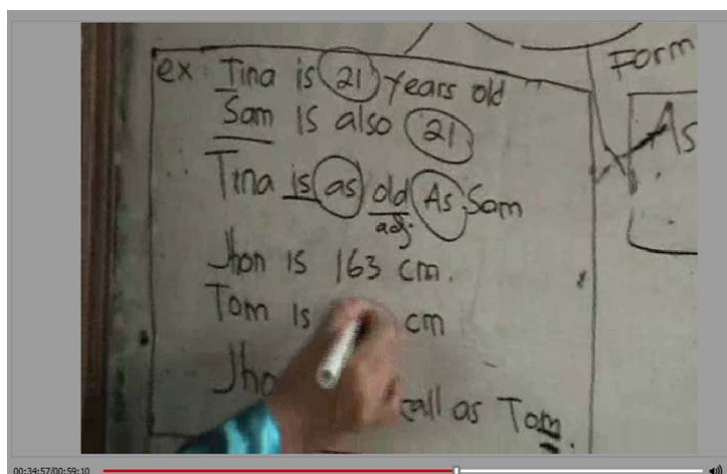


Figure 8b: Written demonstration of exonormative comparative forms

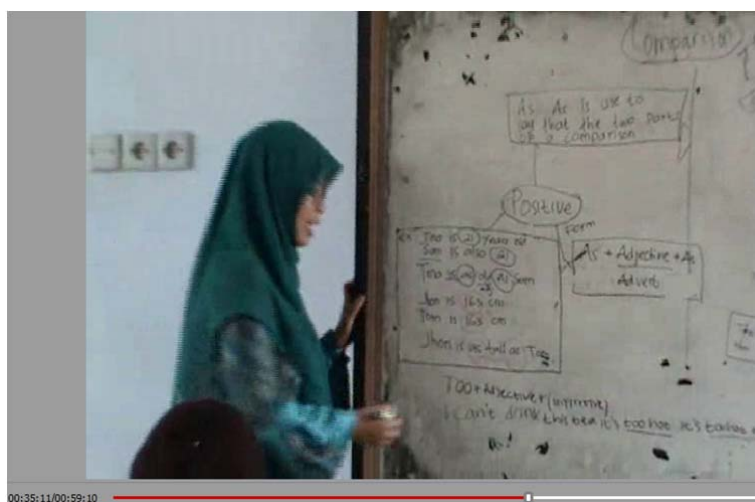
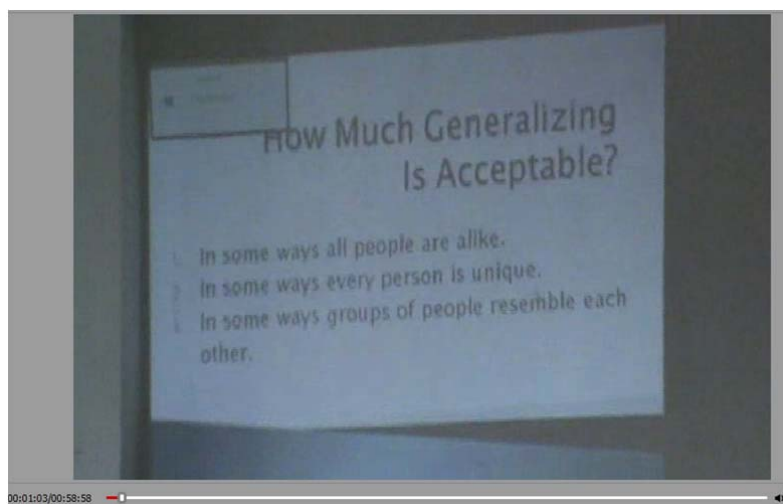


Figure 9: Written demonstration of exonormative adjectival clauses



In Figure 10, the teacher-trainer's presentation was written following the prescribed rules of the exonormative English.

Figure 10: Exonormative forms in the teacher-trainer's presentation



Clearly, the teacher-trainers were evoking the attribute of writing exonormative forms of English in their Grammar classes which is to be expected. However, their oral language showed a marked contrast. It was found that the teacher-trainers used either Indonesian or English, or a mix of Indonesian and English, or this mix including a local dialect (Minangkabau) in their functional activities. The frequency of language used by the twelve teacher-trainers is presented in Table 10.

Table 10: The language used by the teacher-trainers

Experience	Participant (pseudonym)	Class type	Students Year level	Indonesian	English	Mixing Indonesian and English	Mixing Indonesian, English and Minangkabau language
0.5 years	Burham	Speech	2 nd	11% ⁱ	20%	22%	1%
	Darman	Classroom Management	3 rd	30%	5%	10%	1%
	Diarto	Listening	2 nd	2%	42%	19%	-
	Rukmini	TEFL	3 rd	13%	12%	50%	-
5-10 years	Nanda	Reading	1 st	4%	17%	30%	-
	Herawati	Language Assessment	3 rd	1%	2%	35%	-
	Ridwan	Sociolinguistics	4 th	25%	5%	14%	-
	Maimun	English Grammar	2 nd	6%	6%	60%	-
More than 10 years	Widya	Research	3 rd	58%	3%	16%	-
	Yusman	Cross cultural understanding	4 th	16%	18%	20%	16%
	Fadil	English Grammar	2 nd	5%	6%	28%	-
	Ermin	Instructional design	3 rd	14%	-	17%	8%
Average of the percentage				15%	11%	27%	2%

ⁱ These figures represent percentages of time during a one hour class.

The dominant single code was Indonesian, used 15% of the time compared with English which was used 11% of the time. All teachers code-switched between English and Indonesian. This constituted a total of 27% of the class time. However, Table 10 also shows variations among the teachers, suggesting a range of skill levels. When the teacher-trainers spoke in English, they followed the exonormative form of English, as exemplified in the following:

Teacher: *Haven't I told you before the function of an outline in speech? Have I told you before the function of an outline in making a speech* [teacher repeated the question slowly]

Students: *Not yet*

Teacher: *Not yet? Are you sure?*

Teacher: *Are you sure?*

Students: *yes*

Teacher: *Ok now, let's come to question. For question, what outline in speech? Outline in speech, outline. Can you hear me?*

Students: *yes*

Teacher: *What is outline?*

Extract from Burhan's classroom [Speech]

Minute: 3.50

Teacher: *ok Good morning everybody*

Students: *Good morning*

Teacher: *How are you this morning?*

Students: *I'm ok* [some students say 'It's good']

Teacher: *Really?*

Students: *Yes*

Teacher: *Ok, let me start with our material. Ok, before you start to listen let me explain to you what you are going to do. Take a look with, now we come to unit three. It is about sport [unintelligible], ok there are only five sections here, and I think that is a little bit easy than previous one. Take a look section one. The topic is about health ads. You know ads?*

Extract from Diarto's classroom [Listening]

Minute: 0.04

Teacher: *In understanding the topic of the paragraph, it means that you have to have and then you have to read the whole paragraph. It means that start it from the first sentence, the second sentence, the third sentence until the last sentence, not only until the first and the second sentence.*

Extract from Nanda's classroom [Reading]

Minute: 4.52

Teacher: *Ok and then before I explain more about speaking assessment, I will answer your question [unintelligible] how to make, what should you do as a teacher to make your student can interact or can be interactive speaking in the class. Ya if [unintelligible] you want your students can or have the motivation in your speaking class, you should build your students' motivation. How they can stand in front of the class. Because to make your students stand in front of the class, it is not an easy way ya.*

Extract from Herawati's class [English language assessment]

Minute: 33.34

Teacher: *In some ways all people are alike. What does it mean? Physically, ya physically, we are the same. Our blood is red. Ya*

Extract from Yusman's classroom [Cross cultural understanding]

Minute: 1.38

The above examples show that the teachers are exercising the exonormative 'performance' attribute 'using prescribed academic English in academic contexts'.

However, most of the time the teacher-trainers spoke English with an accent reflecting their first language (Minangkabau), as Indonesian for this cohort was a second language. The following table illustrates this variation.

Table 11: Description of the teacher-trainers local accent

		The phonetic transcription of the teacher-trainers' pronunciations	The American/British English phonetic transcription	Description
LONG vs SHORT VOWELS	easy	ɪsɪ	i:zi	Minangkabau does not have the long/short vowel contrast of English (Moussay, 1998) For example: [i:] > [ɪ]
	speech	spɪtʃ	spɪ:tʃ	
	three	tri	θri:	
UNSTRESSED VOWELS	material	mə'tɪəriəl	mə'tɪri:əl	The unstressed vowels of multi-syllabic English words were pronounced as pure vowels.
	approval	a'pruval	ə'pruvəl	
DIPHTHONGS	told	tɒld	toʊld	Minangkabau has seven diphthongs: [ia], [ua], [ea], [ui], [oi], [au], [ai] (Moussay, 1998) The English diphthongs [oo] and [ei] are pronounced as pure vowels, eg: [oʊ] > [ʊ] [ei] > [e] or [æ]
	explain	æks'plen	ɪk'spleɪn	
	take	tæk	teɪk	
	ok	ɒ'kæ	oʊ'keɪ	

RHOTIC CONSONANTS	sure really hear	sʊr rɪli: hɪər	ʃʊr ri:li: hɪər / hɪə	The English /r/ is pronounced as a “rolled or trilled r”. This is distinctive of Minangkabau
FRICATIVES	sections three they question	seksən tri deɪ kewsən	sekfənz θri: ðeɪ kwestʃən	Palatals fricatives are pronounced a alveolar fricatives or stops, eg: [ʃ] > [s] [θ] > [t] [ð] > [d] Neither Indonesian nor Minangkabau have the fricatives /sh/ and /th/. The voiced alveolar fricative is devoiced, e.g.: [z] > [s]
WORD FINAL CONSONANT CLUSTERS	students tents	stʊdən ten	stu:dənts tents	The word final consonant cluster [ts] does not occur in Indonesian and in Minangkabau.

As can be seen in Table 11 above, endonormative accents were prevalent in the teacher-trainers’ speech so would not have been indicative of the manifestation of the exonormative ‘performance’ attribute ‘speaking like L1 English speakers’.

Nonetheless these data illustrate that several attributes of endonormative ‘performance’: ‘incorporating first language norms and speech in English usage’; ‘communicating with L1 and non-L1 English speakers’; and ‘adapting to different varieties of English’.

Endonormative ‘performance’ attributes also dominated the structure of language used by some of the teacher trainers with both intrasentential and intersentential switching (Saville-Troike, 2003). Intersentential switching occurs at phrasal, sentence, or discourse boundaries:

Teacher: *Only four things that are available in the health club.
Do you understand? Not yet? It means you have to circle, you
harus mencari empat hal atau empat servis yang disediakan klub
kesehatan tersebut...*

Extract from Dirato's classroom [Listening]

Minute: 1:32

Interestingly, however, while intersentential code-switching is occurring, the prescribed exonormative structures of English are being maintained.

Teacher: ...atau kamu kasih dia satu paragraph, *you get or give your students a paragraph in Indonesia or in English then you ask your students to retell what is the paragraph talk about. What is the meaning of the paragraph? It means that your students act as interpreter.* Jadi sama seperti interpreter atau translator. Jadi dia menjelaskan, ah itu tadi pertanyaan yang berkaitan dengan parafrase...

Extract from Herawati's classroom [Language assessment]

Minute: 42.02

Teacher: ...kalau *three minutes* anda mukadimah aja, orang ndak akan tertarik untuk mendengarkannya [unintelligible] makanya *that's the point, just go to the first part of outline that talking about introduction.* *Introduction* nya kayak gini ya hanya pertama langsung kita...

Extract from Burhan's classroom [Speech]

Minute: 59.30

Teacher: *Anything you can explain about adverb of clause? Anyone of you?* Klausanya *adverb*. Kalau ditanya *adverb* apa?

Students: keterangan

Teacher: Keterangan apa?

Extract from Maimun's classroom [English Grammar unit]

Minute: 3:46

Intrasentential switching occurs in the middle of an utterance, usually without pause, interruption or hesitation.

Teacher: *Adverb.* *Adverb* tadi keterangan ada untuk waktu, tempat, [unintelligible] *effect* dan *conditional*. Kalau untuk *present* ada '*now*', '*at the time*', ada '*right now*' ...

Extract from Maimun's classroom [English Grammar class]

Minute: 10.35

This type of code-switching does not provide an opportunity for modeling exonormative forms of English.

Teacher: Nah yang nomer dua (pointing to the example of sentences on the whiteboard) ini ini yang disebut dengan *adverb clause*. Karena apa? Dia dalam bentuk klausa. Klausa yang bagaimana? *Dependent*. Kenapa dia dinyatakan sebagai *dependent*? Karena berdiri sendiri.

(Teacher: Number two (pointing to the example of sentences on the whiteboard) is called *adverb clause*. Why? It is in the form of clause. How is the clause? It is *dependent*. Why is it *dependent*? Because it doesn't stand on it own)

Extract from Maimun's classroom [English Grammar unit]

Minute: 17.23

Teacher: Kriteria terdapat pada saat yang sama dengan prediktornya. Jadi kriterianya sama dengan prediktor. Kalau kita ambil contoh di TOEFL ya yang paling mudah. TOEFL mau dia dalam *paper-based* mau dia dalam *computer-based* dia tetap dibilang TOEFL kan. Maka hasil di *computer-based* tidak akan beda dengan di *paper-based*. Soal di *paper-based* sama dengan di *computer-based*. Yang membedakan apa, kriterianya cuma, yang satu lewat komputer yang satu lewat *paper*.

(Teacher: Criteria are in the predictor. So criteria are similar to predictor. Let's take an easy example on TOEFL. Paper-based and computer-based TOEFL are similar. The results will be the same. The items are similar. The different is in the criteria, one by using computer and the other using paper)

Extract from Widya's classroom [Research unit]

Minute: 29:56

In the above extracts the endonormative 'performance' attribute of 'communicating with L1 and non-L1 English speakers' is demonstrated, as is 'incorporating first language norms and speech in English usage', while in the following example, the teacher is 'accepting non-standard sentence structure in spoken English':

Teacher: [Calls on a student to answer a question]

Student: ...*introduction is the sentence aah and which aah from the paragraph and next which body or discussion there is aah immediate content of our speech and the last*

[unintelligible] conclusion is our statement that support aah the main point , the main point, the main point of speech.

Teacher: *Thank you very much* (call out to another student)

Extract from Burham's classroom [Speech unit]

Minute: 22:34

The teacher-trainers also accepted code-switching between Indonesia and English since the meaning (implicit and explicit) was clear:

Student: ... pemahaman atau ilmu tentang materi itu, dia kan itu akan itu berpartisipasi dengan baik. Aah kemudian kita juga menempatkan sebuah *the appropriate strategy in the for the speaking class*. Menggunakan strategi yang cocok dan tepat dalam penyampaian materi dalam speaking class.

(Student: ...we need to understand the materials of our lesson so that we can apply the appropriate teaching strategy for a speaking class.

Extract from Herawati's classroom [English language assessment]

Minute: 24.1

The teachers also conducted code-switching with the local dialect (Minangkabau):

Teacher: Kata kerja [unintelligible] ada dua kata kerja, ada yang *transitive* dan *intransitive*, ada yang memerlukan *object* namanya *transitive verb*. Kalau yang ndak memerlukan *object* namanya *intransitive verb*, tanpa perlu *object* ndak ditambah *object*. *Lai jaleh dek you tu* [mixing Minangkabau and English].

(Teacher: There are two types of verbs, transitive and intransitive verb. Transitive verb needs object and intransitive does not need object. Do you understand it?)

Extract from Burhan's classroom [Speech unit]

Minute: 43:30

Teacher: ...kita menyuruh orang berpakaian apa *pakai sarawa bantuak ka mandi pai ka pasa* [Minangkabau dialect]. Makanya apa saya bilang dulu, jangan *you* [English] urus orang lain, utus dulu diri sendiri. Makanya kita harus menghargai *privacy* [English]. Mulai sekarang...

Extract from Yusman's classroom [Cross cultural understanding]

Minute: 38.04

5.3 Summary of the Key Findings of Phase Two

The key findings from the observation of classroom practice which sought manifestation of the attributes of 'proficiency in English' show that several 'competence' and 'performance' attributes were evident within the teacher-trainers' classroom practices.

'Competence' attributes were sought in the instructional content of the classes. The frequency of reference to exonormative 'competence' indicated a marked bias towards establishing these forms as a standard. These attributes were most evident in those units of study or courses which taught English language *per se*. Endonormative 'competence' attributes were not manifested in these classes.

The manifestation of the 'performance' attributes however showed quite different results. To measure this, the teacher-trainers' own 'performance' was investigated. The exonormative 'performance' attribute 'adhering to the prescribed grammatical rules in writing', was evident particularly in Grammar classes. However, their oral language showed a marked contrast because they used either Indonesian or English, or a mix of Indonesian and English, or this mix including a local dialect (Minangkabau) as a medium of instruction. The frequency of the use of these language codes suggested a range of skill levels.

The teacher-trainers were not able to maintain the exonormative 'performance' attributes 'using prescribed academic English in academic contexts' in the spoken language. It was evident that most of the time they spoke English with an accent reflecting their first language (Minangkabau). Endonormative 'performance' attributes also dominated the structure of language when either intrasentential or intersentential switching occurred.

Overall, the findings of this study show that teacher-trainers varied in their manifestations of the constructs in line with the contrasting themes of the proposed model. Therefore the proposed model appears satisfactory, in the interim, as a starting point for developing a more appropriate construct for the Indonesian EFL situation. In the following chapter the implications of these findings will be discussed.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses the key findings presented in Chapters 4 and 5, with reference to Research Question 1 (What are the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English'?) and Research Question 2 (How are those perceptions manifested in the teacher-trainers' training practices?). Implications due to dissonance in the degree of fit between the proposed construct of 'proficiency in English' and their actual classroom practice are presented here to inform English language teaching pedagogy and to contribute to discussions regarding a distinctly Indonesian variety of English.

6.1 Teacher-trainers' Perceptions of 'Proficiency in English' and Their Classroom Practice in the Indonesian Context

The first research question sought to investigate the participating Indonesian teacher-trainers' perceptions of what constituted the construct 'proficiency in English'. The interview data from a small number of teacher-trainers showed a range of descriptions for 'proficiency in English'. Qualitative content analysis of the interview data also showed that a range of attributes were embodied in 'proficiency in English'. Based on the findings of the interview data, a model of 'proficiency in English' was proposed comprising exonormative constructs and endonormative constructs. This model embraces a combination of structural knowledge of English language on the one hand and communicative skills in the other. These have been interpreted in the study as attributes of 'competence' which refer to 'knowing' the rules of English language and 'knowing how' to execute them appropriately. Communicative skills have been interpreted in this study as 'performance' attributes and refer to the practical abilities or skills which are achieved after internalising the attributes of 'competence'. Findings from a further larger cohort of teacher-trainers support the notion of exonormative constructs for academic contexts, but endonormative constructs were mainly deemed only acceptable for informal situations and cross-cultural communication, as proposed in the model developed in this thesis.

The second research question aimed to investigate the actual practice of the teacher-trainers in their classrooms. Their activities were examined to identify whether the attributes of ‘competence’ and ‘performance’ within the exonormative and endonormative constructs of ‘proficiency in English’ were made manifest in their classroom practice. The findings revealed that teacher-trainers vary in their manifestations of the proposed constructs.

The teacher-trainers indicated a marked bias towards exonormative competence in the content of their teaching. Not surprisingly, this occurred more in specific grammar classes. Their own communicative (oral) performance however showed the opposite, with heavily accented English pronunciation and intrasentential and intersentential code-switching.

6.1.1 Teacher-trainers’ Conceptual Frameworks of ‘Proficiency in English’

Based on the Phase One findings, three points are discussed in this section to highlight the teacher-trainers’ conceptual understandings of the construct ‘proficiency in English’. They are:

- I. The teacher-trainers’ conceptual understanding of the attributes of exonormative and endonormative ‘competence’
- II. The teacher-trainers’ conceptual understanding of the attributes of exonormative and endonormative ‘performance’
- III. The teacher-trainers’ conceptual understanding of the attributes of a ‘competence’/‘performance’ relationship.

I. The Teacher-trainers’ Conceptual Understanding of the Attributes of Exonormative and Endonormative ‘Competence’

The participants’ conceptualisation of ‘proficiency in English’ constituted attributes of ‘competence’ or knowledge which triggers emergent abilities or skills. This knowledge focussed on exonormative English language norms or rules or “kaidah-kaidah”. While this appears to conform to Chomsky’s conception of Universal Grammar, that is, “all language consists of a common set of linguistic principles” (Hall, 2011, p.251), none of the participants implied that these rules were based on an innate property of humans. Clearly, their conceptual understandings of

‘competence’ are derived from a structuralist view of language (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; 1998). That is, language consists of a system of related elements and learning a language means mastering each of these elements. In this study therefore, ‘proficiency in English’ was seen as having conscious knowledge of grammar rules concerning the sentence structure or explicit metalinguistic awareness (Whong, 2011).

However, the teacher-trainers saw the attributes of ‘competence’ as also consisting of knowledge of how language is used. This suggests an awareness of the cultural dimensions of language use.

The teacher-trainers strongly supported the standard varieties of American or British English or “struktur baku” [standard forms]. As a result the exonormative forms of English are well embedded in English teaching contexts in Indonesia. Other English varieties, especially endonormative forms from Outer Circle countries were not considered appropriate in academic contexts. This understanding results from the power of the ideology of Standard English which, as Mazzon (2002) describes, puts pressure on other varieties of English placing them in a second class position. The ‘native speaker’ of English as the ideal model for English language teaching derives from “linguistic imperialism” (Phillipson, 1992) that does not advocate plurality of the English language.

The endonormative ‘competence’ regarding the knowledge to recognise L2 English speakers’ identities was not fully supported by the survey respondents although this construct emerged within the individual (interview) level. This finding suggests that the principle of ‘wannabe native speakers’ (Cook, 2012) still dominates English language teaching in the Indonesian context. For example, using the local accent was not fully endorsed, even though in reality, it is difficult to acquire the accent of Inner Circle speakers. In their classroom practice, the teachers spoke English with an accent reflecting their first language.

These findings support Tan & Castelli’s (2013) study which indicates an impenetrable ‘native speaker’ bias and an inferiority complex attached to South East Asian English varieties. The teachers’ performance attributes reflected a Standard English ideology which evokes exonormative forms of English particularly within

academic contexts. However, the participants also indicated an understanding English for communication purposes which would encompass endonormative forms.

II. The Teacher-trainers' Conceptual Understanding of the Attributes of Exonormative and Endonormative 'Performance'

The attributes of 'performance' in the endonormative construct of 'proficiency in English' revealed the teacher-trainers' conceptual understanding of the practical abilities or skills needed for using English language in real life situations. These skills were more focused on the communicative purposes, but were limited to informal situations and in cross-cultural communications. In this respect, contextual awareness was considered important when exercising communicative skills. This view accords with a functional view of language proficiency and communication in specific contexts (Adegbile & Alabi, 2005, p. 31).

Even though, the participants perceived knowledge of English as containing prescribed rules based on exonormative forms, on a practical level, prescribed English rules were generally deemed as only relevant for writing purposes and particularly in academic contexts. Implicit in this finding is an understanding that Indonesians may not be speaking Inner Circle English to other Indonesians on a daily basis.

However, in the context of speaking, there was a collective tendency to support the communication of meaning rather than of correct form. For example, intelligibility was preferred to imitating L1 English speakers. These findings may be suggestive of the teacher-trainers' own anxiety in achieving the exonormative forms of Inner Circle English. Therefore, it is understandable that they tolerated divergence from exonormative forms within spoken discourse as long as the meaning is communicated: thus, the acceptance of endonormative forms in spoken discourse, particularly in local contexts.

Another common practical ability included in their construct of 'proficiency in English' was the ability to communicate with L1 and non-L1 English speakers - an acknowledgement of the need for cross-cultural communication. However, exonormative forms of English for communicating with L1 English speakers were preferred over endonormative forms showing the strength of the ideology of an Inner

Circle standard form of English. This ambivalence regarding an ideal form of English remained in spite of the reality of variation in English internationally.

III. The Teacher-trainers' Conceptual Understanding of the Attributes of the 'Competence' and 'Performance' Relationship

It was evident in this study that teachers' understanding accorded, to some degree, with a cognitive perspective (McLaughlin 1990), rather than Innatism or Generativist perspectives which view language as a distinct process of mind. The cognitive perspective, views language as type of learned knowledge like any other learned knowledge (Whong, 2011). From a cognitive perspective, 'competence' is seen as declarative/procedural knowledge that shapes 'skill learning' (Hall, 2011; Johnson 1996). This framework proposes that the internalisation of declarative knowledge (knowing about language) automates language learners' procedural knowledge (knowing how to use language). Whereas, language 'performance', as also seen by these teacher-trainers, is the spontaneous product of a mental process or the cognitive actions resulting from acquiring knowledge of language (Johnson, 1996).

6.1.2 Constraints on the Teacher-trainers' Conceptual Understanding of 'Proficiency in English'

In this study, potential contextual factors may have influenced teacher-trainers' understanding of the proficiency construct. Borg (2003) suggests that teachers' cognition is influenced by their schooling, their professional education, and their classroom practice. Thus, the participants were not "empty vessels" (Freeman and Johnson, 1998) but already have conceptual models of what it means to be proficient in English. Theme 1 (the Exonormative construct) and 2 (the Endonormative construct) are therefore potentially influenced by prior experience in learning English, by the prescribed English curriculum, by institutional English language testing and measurement, by teaching materials and reference books, by students' performance in class, and by the role of English in international communication. These constraints are by no means exhaustive but are highlighted due to their existence in the Indonesian context.

I. Constraints on Theme 1 (Exonormative constructs)

Previous studies (see Borg, 2006; Richards et.al. 2001) have indicated that prior experiences have a role in shaping teachers' mental states. It is possible that the teacher-trainers' understanding of 'proficiency in English' involving exonormative constructs (Theme 1) was based on their own experiences of learning English in Indonesia because structural linguistics is deeply rooted in the history of teaching English in Indonesia (see Lie, 2007). Their conceptual understandings of 'proficiency in English' suggest an "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975) which means many teachers teach the way they were taught and this term is used for explaining the "lack of influence of teacher education programs on teachers' beliefs and practices" (Mewborn & Tyminski, 2006 p. 30). The participants would have experienced teaching and learning processes using the structuralist approach in their six years of junior and senior high school education. Therefore, to them the structuralist paradigm is the norm and the knowledge and skills aspects of English language are prescribed and reflect exonormative constructs.

Experiencing the exonormative forms of English would also have occurred in the participants' tertiary education and would have influenced their perceptions of 'proficiency in English'. They would have used the published materials derived from Inner Circle English speaking countries (Kirkpatrick, 2007), regardless of the local context. This view of proficiency would also have been reinforced by the prescribed curriculum in their tertiary institutions. As Dardjowidjojo (2000) states, the curriculum at the tertiary level in Indonesia was designed to develop both language skills and theoretical knowledge. The teacher-trainers may have simply drawn on the view that proficiency in the four language skills is compulsory in academic contexts. The four skills-sequence is still within the domain of a structuralist view of language (Szecsy, 2008). In the Indonesian context, this view is determined by the authorities of the educational institutions and Standard English is imposed and maintained by the institutions.

Another constraint on perceptions of proficiency in English would have been the current global English language testing schemes such as IELTS, TOEFL and TOEIC. These are widely recognised in the Indonesian context. Such English tests leave no choice for Indonesian educational institutions and their teachers of English

but to stress the importance of exonormative forms of English, thus legitimating British and American English within the Indonesian context. Due to the hegemony of the English testing industry, such tests are gate-keepers to educational and socioeconomic domains and maintain the educational bias towards Inner Circle English.

II. Constraints on Theme 2 (Endonormative constructs)

The teacher-trainers' understanding of Theme 2 – the endonormative construct would also have been constrained. Clearly, they are required to understand current English curricula at all school levels in order to train prospective English teachers. However, the current curriculum determined by the Indonesia Department of Education is communicative in approach (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Musthafa, 2001; Nur, 2004). Therefore, the teacher-trainers were familiar with the notion of 'communicative competence'. Inevitably, in being able to use English 'accurately' and 'appropriately' in specific contexts (after Hymes, 1972; Butler & Hakuta, 2005) influenced their construct of proficiency. Hence, given the need for 'communicative competence', communicating meaning regardless of form was also advocated by the participating teacher-trainers.

A further constraint on Theme 2 (Endonormative constructs), was the teacher-trainers' experience of their students' linguistic performance. Classroom interaction would have led them to propose the importance of intelligibility. Intelligibility is a complex issue and there is no general consensus in the literature on the use of this term whether from speakers' or listeners' perspectives (Joshi, 2013). In this study intelligibility, as understood by the participants, equates Field's conception of comprehensibility as "the extent to which a speaker's message is understandable, thanks to a combination of appropriate vocabulary, correct (or approximate syntax), sensitive pragmatics and mastery of basic features of pronunciation" (Field, 2003, p.35). In other words, the speaker and the listener should simply be able to understand each other. It is not surprising therefore that teacher-trainers supported 'intelligibility' as one of their preferred attributes within the construct of 'proficiency in English'.

The teacher-trainers would have been well aware of the difficulty that their students faced in speaking like L1 English speakers from Inner Circle countries. As the data

show, they themselves were unable to do so. In their classroom practice, they are faced with the reality that their students' linguistic performances in English is far from that required by the curriculum, so in practice they may have put aside expectations of oral proficiency. This would have resulted in not fully adhering to exonormative forms of English and code switching to ensure understanding. Hence the endonormative constructs in exercising English language for communicative purposes.

The last, but not the least, constraint on Theme 2 was the teacher-trainers' awareness of the global function of English for communicating across cultures and the need for English for international communication. Being able to communicate internationally was a prevalent skill mentioned in the data and thus supporting Graddol's (2001, p.27) claim that English functions as "a vehicular language for international communication". The inclusion of this skill derives from a functionalist paradigm.

6.1.3 Teacher-trainers' Training Practice

The second research question investigated the ways in which the Indonesian teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' were manifest or not in their training practice. The 'competence' attributes of 'proficiency in English' were evident as they emphasised prescribed linguistic rules based on exonormative English. On the other hand, endonormative competence was rarely evident in the content of teaching. This study therefore confirms that the exonormative forms of English have become legitimate content knowledge. However this situation risks the assumption amongst language educators that endonormative forms of English are deviate forms.

With respect to manifestations of 'performance' attributes which involved practical abilities or skills, it was evident that the teacher-trainers exercised communicative principles such as a focus on the meaning instead of form in spoken discourse. Code switching in Indonesian and English was used dominantly to maintain the flow of communication. This indicated efforts to make the content of their classes intelligible.

The use of code switching reflected the manifestation of endonormative constructs in classroom practice. The teacher trainers employed code switching as a teaching strategy for achieving communicative purposes. As explained by Modupeola (2013.

p. 1), teachers in multilingual societies employ code switching strategies as a means of providing students with opportunities to communicate and enhance understanding. Mujiono, Poedjosoedarmo, Subroto and Wiranto (2013) studied code switching by English lecturers in Indonesian universities from a functional perspective, they proposed fifteen reasons for this compromise (1) linguistic factors such as using loanwords to explain a term that did not have a counterpart in English, (2) to continue speaker's pronouncement, (3) to involve the addressee, (4) for information clarification, (5) for intimacy, (6) affect with the addressee, (7) unpleasant feelings, (8) to create humour, (9) to repeat for the clarification or reiteration of a message, (10) to strengthen a request or command, (11) to ask questions, (12) to give advice, (13) to balance the addressee's language competence, (14) to make it easier to convey a message, and (15) as a discourse marker to convey the current topic. It is most likely that code switching might also be employed by these teacher-trainers for similar reasons.

6.1.4 Constraints on Teacher-trainers' Classroom Practice

Several constraints highlight the conditions within the Indonesian context that influence the manifestation of the given attributes of 'proficiency in English' in classroom practices. These are by no means exhaustive.

The teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' indicated that the exonormative forms of English are used as a point of reference in the Indonesian educational context. This may be attributed to national examinations, university admissions and job requirements. Therefore, it is understandable that educational institutions in Indonesia advocate exonormative English. To this end, the teacher-trainers have no authority to determine the content of their teaching because it has been defined at the top-down institutional level.

Consequently the knowledge (competence) aspects of the endonormative constructs were less frequently manifested in classroom practice and particularly in units of study or courses which are not closely related to English language *per se* such as Instructional Design, Research and Classroom Management since they are not likely to have the objectives of teaching English.

In addition, the extensive use of teaching resources from Inner Circle countries will also contribute to the bias towards the teaching of exonormative forms. As found by Zacharias (2003), English teachers in Indonesia described locally-produced materials as inaccurate and incomplete. Therefore, they prefer materials published the United States or Great Britain. Inevitably these materials contain the exonormative forms of English. In the context of this study, it was evident that the teacher-trainers also depended on teaching resources from Inner Circle countries, such as the recorded conversation between L1 English speakers with the British English accents which Diarto's students were listening to.

The teacher-trainers' own language performance was also constrained by the teaching environment. Concerns about intelligibility dominated their practice. The teacher-trainers were likely to be aware of varying levels of English among their students and they would not want to risk miscommunication or misunderstanding. Therefore, code-switching between Indonesian and English was frequent.

In addition, rather than code switching, the participants choose either English or Indonesian as a means to achieve the objectives of their class. This equates to a condition explained by Bailey (1996) whereby teachers' assumptions about the current classroom situation influence them to change their actions to "serve the common good" (p. 26).

To conclude, the findings from the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' suggest their support for structuralist theory underlying the focus on exonormative 'competence'. Concurrently however, they also support a functionalist view underlying their endonormative 'performance'. These exonormative and endonormative constructs may well conflict in their classroom practice. The findings of the observations of classroom practices suggest the ways that teacher-trainers' perceptions were manifest depended very much on constraints beyond their control. In this situation, it is possible that the teacher-trainers faced a dilemma between using or not using English in their classroom causing their conceptual understandings of 'proficiency in English' to vary in the degree of fit with their practice.

6.2 Implications for English Language Teaching Pedagogy and for the Development of a Distinctly Indonesian Variety of English

This study has generated a number of implications that would be of interest to educational policy-makers in English teacher education programs, to English language educators, particularly to teacher-trainers of English in Indonesia. Several of these implications have emerged from the mismatch between teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' and their actual classroom practice. It should be stressed that the presented ideas are by no means exhaustive. They are, however, intended to stimulate thinking on how the insights from this study might impact on the development of an Indonesian English. The proposed ideas are particularly intended to inform English language teaching pedagogy and to contribute to discussion on the development of a distinctly Indonesian variety of English.

6.2.1 Enhancing Teacher-trainers' Theoretical Understanding on the Construct 'Proficiency in English'

The findings from Phase One and Two suggest the enhancement of teacher-trainers' theoretical understanding, particularly toward the [im]possibility of manifesting their chosen attributes of proficiency in their classrooms. Increased contextual awareness and introducing a critically-informed paradigm in English language education, particularly in the Indonesian context, is needed to build understanding of ways to introduce this construct in actual practice.

I. Increasing Contextual Awareness

This study provides empirical evidence of the complex and problematic relationship between teachers' perceptions and their classroom practice. The teacher-trainers perceived that 'proficiency in English' constituted knowledge of the prescribed rules of exonormative forms English and a likeness of L1 speech. However, their own use of these rules was inconsistent with frequent code-switching and strong local accents.

Teachers' practice depends on various factors (Johnson, 1999) such as their own knowledge and experience, the context and curriculum, and their students' ability.

Their knowledge encompasses both technical and practical knowledge (Eraut, 1994; Meijer et al., 1999), or content and pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1987; Gatbonton, 1999). In certain conditions within teaching practice, these two types of knowledge may not be well aligned because other contextual factors also play an important role in forming and constraining practice and alternating with existing technical knowledge in the process of teaching. As a result, teachers will invariably experience tension in finding opportunities to teach their technical knowledge.

In order to eliminate the gap between theory and practice, Indonesian teachers of English need to be cognizant of these constraints, such as the range of environments where English language teaching takes place, the status and function of the English language in the Indonesian context, and the various contextual levels namely, individual, and social factors. Familiarity with constraints on one's practice is necessary to prepare teachers for teaching English in the Indonesia context. As Bax (2003) asserts, "the first thing to be taken into account by language teachers is context, before taking methodological or language system decisions" (p.284).

This study confirms the insights of many English language educators that while knowledge exerts a strong influence on teachers' actions, it may not fully applicable in English language classrooms (Richards, 2011). In this respect, the teacher-trainers, particularly inexperienced ones, need to be informed that some attributes of 'performance' within exonormative constructs may be hindered by contextual factors. This accords with Kabir's assertion (2011) that "many aspects of the context such as cultural context, political context, institutional context, and classroom context are clearly as important as teaching methods or approaches" (p.35). These contextual factors need to be explicitly identified in Indonesian teacher-trainer programs.

This study supports Reagan's (2005) proposition of the importance of contextual awareness in the process of teaching and learning a language for language educators:

...we need to be aware of the context in which the language is being taught and learned, the economic and power relationships present in that context that are related to the particular language, and the ideological power and status of the target language. We must also be aware of and concerned about the increasing tendency to commodify language-that is, treating a particular language as yet one more thing that an

individual can possess. Learning English, for instance, does indeed open many doors- but at something of a price, at least, if one is uncritical in accepting the language and the beliefs of its broader speaker community. (p.9)

II. Introducing a Critically-informed Paradigm for English Teacher Educators

A further digression between the teacher-trainers' perceptions of 'proficiency in English' and their classroom practice was evident in the required endonormative 'competence', which in their classroom practice, was hardly manifested. The absence of knowledge about endonormative English will not prepare teachers for the range of skills they will encounter among their own students. This includes sociolinguistic knowledge to raise awareness of different varieties of English. To this end, teacher-trainers need to add to their training programs endonormative 'competence' by raising awareness of the wide range of English varieties which are current in international communication.

Therefore, teacher-trainers themselves also need to broaden their knowledge of endonormative constructs by familiarizing themselves with different views such as the World Englishes (Kachru, 1992) paradigm. The English language teacher programs in Indonesia need to prepare graduates appropriately for the world of language teaching theory, as Seidlhofer (1999) argues:

To what extent different and competing claims are reconcilable will depend on specific circumstances, and only the teacher concerned will be in a position to take local decisions. The critical criterion for how informed these local decisions can be will be the quality of teacher education. EFL teachers who have good idea as to what options are in principle available to them, and have learnt to evaluate these critically, skeptically and confidently, are unlikely to be taken in by the absolute claims and exaggerated promises often made by any one educational philosophy, linguistic theory, teaching, or textbooks. (p.240)

A critically-informed paradigm is relevant to this discussion because it encourages teacher-trainers to become familiar with the various ideologies in English language teaching and learning and to be able to negotiate which one is the best for their

context. It is unavoidable that our teachers will encounter the many debates and theories on approaches to teaching English. Therefore, a critically-informed paradigm will provide them with a tool to conceptualize ‘proficiency in English’ within their own contexts, so that they can accommodate those attributes which fit their students’ needs.

6.2.2 Enhancing the Effectiveness of Teacher-trainers’ Classroom Practice

It was evident in this study that the teacher-trainers encountered only some degree of possibility in manifesting the attributes of their constructs ‘proficiency in English’. To overcome the constraints which impede their efforts, they need to improve their teaching own strategies. Even though Hall (2011, p. 4) describes the nature of English language teaching around the world as diverse and complex, new ideas particularly for teaching English in the Indonesian context are needed.

Teacher-trainers need to develop bottom-up principles to meet their students’ needs and to overcome practical dilemmas. The numerous (exonormative) top-down principles which teachers might wish to impart may simply not be feasible in the Indonesian context. For example, using English for all classroom discourse would be a challenge for both teacher-trainers and their students. In this respect, the value in teaching exonormative forms by using code switching, as is the common practice, needs to be assessed, particularly for academic contexts, because in the Indonesian context, English for academic contexts legitimately adheres to the norms of Standard English stipulated by education policy. There is as yet no evidence to suggest that not providing the ‘expected’ English models is detrimental to students.

To develop bottom-up principles teacher-trainers need to use a “sense of plausibility” (Prabu, 1990, p.172), that is, their own conceptualization of how their teaching can ensure effective learning outcomes for their particular student cohorts. If the goal is for students to master exonormative forms of English and the most effective way to achieve this is *proven to be* by code switching, then teacher-trainers need to be encouraged to use this strategy, but they need to inform their students about the use of this strategy, as their students will most likely teach as they were taught.

6.2.3 Development of a Distinctly Indonesian Variety of English

This study has shown code switching to be extensively used as a practical communicative strategy amongst teachers of English and their students. Instead of adhering to the exonormative forms of English that the teacher-trainers espoused, they used code switching. Thus they have already employed endonormative constructs. It is possible that this practice might evolve into a variety used in spoken discourse by Indonesians in educational institutions and more broadly in Indonesia business and commerce, etc. By code switching as a ‘regular behaviour’ (Abbot, 2004) the possibility of its continuity increases.

The excessive use of code switching in the teacher-trainers’ classroom practice suggests that the development of distinctively Indonesian variety of English is in progress, for code-switching itself is not yet evidence of a new variety, such as Singlish or Indian English. However, the point that Indonesian/English code-switching has reached has not yet been investigated. The outcome of the widespread use of this distinctly Indonesian communicative style in educational contexts could be an emerging variety legitimised for use within the wider Indonesian community.

Possible courses of action regarding what should be done for teacher-trainers’ professional development in English language teaching education programs and what effects these actions could have are presented in the next final chapter.

CHAPTER 7

RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The exploration of the teacher-trainers' conceptualisation of a construct for 'proficiency in English' confirms a continuum of knowledge and skills that makes a single clear definition difficult. The construct, in the Indonesian context, ranges from language knowledge and skills in strongly prescribed English norms based on the exonormative English of Inner Circle countries, to the varying norms of local endonormative English. Thus there is no single, agreed-upon conception of this construct.

Moreover, the teacher-trainers' conceptual understanding of this construct also reflected the power of the Standard English paradigm in Indonesia, which is based on the Standard English ideology which posits the exonormative English as the only legitimate English. However, an ambivalent reality also arises particularly within spoken discourse. The teacher-trainers themselves did not use the English of L1 speakers, but instead endormative forms of English to accommodate their local contexts.

The findings of this study provide insights for Indonesian teachers of English, for teacher-trainers in English teacher education programs, and for authorities in educational institutions, and call for a critical approach to existing teaching paradigms introduced by way of professional development. In this final chapter, recommendations formulated from the findings and directions for future research are presented.

7.1 Recommendations

It is recommended that action is taken to reconceptualise the arbitrary construct of 'proficiency in English' for the Indonesian context by referring to different paradigmatic frameworks. This action should be undertaken to counter the view that varieties of English from Outer and Expanding Circle countries are deviant. To this end, other paradigms of English language should be promoted. That is, teachers should not only be familiar with current debates arising from paradigms such as

Standard English, World Englishes and English as Lingua Franca, but they also should be empowered to select which attributes within these paradigms suit the needs of their students.

The second recommended action is to re-evaluate the curriculum of English teacher education programs in order to clarify the knowledge and skills to be attained. This examination of the curriculum and syllabus should also ensure that the knowledge and skills accommodate both exonormative and endonormative constructs. As indicated in this study, the teacher-trainers were constrained by their program curriculum and this influenced both their thinking and their classroom practice. It is argued that the clarification of exonormative and endonormative constructs is required to widen their understanding of ‘using English accurately and appropriately’ in various contexts. Therefore, the notion of ‘accurate and appropriate English’ should be addressed explicitly in the curriculum for the benefit of prospective teachers of English who will face the challenges of global communication.

Clearly, the content of English language teaching should contain a balance of prescribed rules of English language and familiarisation with the current sociolinguistic realities both locally and around the world. Institutions can promote this in the curriculum and through materials design. It is necessary therefore for both teacher-trainers and institution policy makers to jointly formulate feasible attributes of ‘proficiency in English’ which are based on the current needs of Indonesian users of English language.

The process of reconceptualising the construct of ‘proficiency in English’ within the Indonesian context and re-evaluating the curriculum of English language teachers’ education program should involve professionals such as applied linguistics researchers and English educators in Indonesia. A proposed model of the current construct of proficiency has been developed within this study and may contribute a variable starting point to this process. Educational institutions should also facilitate regular professional development activities for teacher-trainers by inviting local and international scholars who work with different paradigms to share their views and current research. However, it should be noted that this professional development would not aim to promote one particular paradigm as opposed to another, but rather

to increase teacher-trainers' critical thinking to challenge all existing paradigms and to seek what suits the needs of their students.

7.2 Future Research

This section offers suggestions for future research to generate understanding of the issues around English language teaching especially in the Indonesian context. Firstly, there should be more explorative studies on the key concepts in English language teaching and their use in the Indonesian context. It is argued that such studies are beneficial to produce further revelations on the complex nature of English language teaching in Indonesia which could, in turn, provide empirical support for changing the current English language teaching paradigm.

Qualitative studies should be encouraged to capture teachers' reflections on their practice, on the needs of their students, and on the broader institutional and sociolinguistic contexts of their teaching. In addition, action research should be promoted to pursue educational innovation and to develop praxis that accords with the Indonesian context.

Secondly, the present study did not examine in detail the teacher-trainers' code switching. In particular is the need to evaluate the benefit of code-switching in instruction for students. Research needs to ascertain whether this mixed instructional code is detrimental to their English language development or, contrary to the considerable amount of research supporting intensive language learning programs, in fact enhances it.

Additionally, the code-switching activity itself needs further scrutiny. Both intersentential and intrasentential code-switching were observed in this study. However, the degree to which the latter in particular is contributing to an Indonesian variant of English is still unknown. In order to claim a legitimate Indonesian variety of English, the English language use of Indonesians from all walks of life should be critically examined. Thus, English language educators in Indonesia should be encouraged to conduct research focusing on endonormative English in Indonesian society.

References

- Abbot, A. (2004). *Methods of discovery: Heuristics for the social science*. New York: W.W.Norton & Company.
- Adegbile, J.A. & O.F. & Alabi, O.F. (2005). Proficiency and communicative competence in L2: Implications for teachers and learners. *International Journal of African & African American Studies*, 4 (2), 31-37.
- Asnan, G. (2007), *Memikir ulang regionalisme: Sumatera Barat tahun 1950-an*. Yayasan Obor Indonesia, ISBN 978-979-461-640-6.
- Afrianto. (2011). A Study of a wash-back effect of the high-stakes national examination for students in Indonesian secondary schools. Retrieved from <http://ejournal.unri.ac.id>
- Alip, F.B. (2004). *The Feasibility of Indonesian English*. Retrieved from <http://usd.ac.id>.
- Bachman, L. F. (2003). *Fundamental consideration in language testing* (6th ed.). Shanghai: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1982). The construct validation of some components of communicative proficiency. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16 (4): 44-65
- Bailey, K. (1996). The best laid plans: Teachers' in-class decisions to depart from their lesson plans. In Bailey, K. (Ed.) *Voices from the Language Classroom: Qualitative Research from Second Language Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bailey, K. M., Bergthold, B. Braunstein, N. Fleischman, J., Holbrook, M.P., Tuman, T., Waissbluth. X. & Zambo. L.J. (1996) The language learners' autobiography: Examining the "apprenticeship of observation". In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 11-29). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Battaglia, M. (2008). Purposive sample. In P. Lavrakas (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of survey research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S. & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics* 25, 243 – 272.
- Bauman, L. J. and Adair, E. G. (1992). The use of ethnographic interviewing to inform survey construction. *Health Education Quarterly*, 19, 9-23.
- Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: A context approach to language teaching. *ELT J*, 57(3). Oxford University Press.

- Beail, N. & Beail, S. (1985). Evaluating dependency. In N. Beail (ed.) *Repertory grid technique and personal constructs: applications in clinical and educational settings* London: Croom Helm.
- Bire, J. (2010). Mismatch: English education in Indonesia. Retrieved from <http://ojs.unud.ac.id/index.php/linguistika/>
- Birello, M. (2012). Teacher cognition and language teacher education: Belief and practice. A conversation with Simon Borg. *Bellatera Journal of Teaching and Learning Language & Literature*, 5(2), 88-94.
- Bolton, K. (ed.). (2002). *Asian Englishes today: Hongkong English autonomy and creativity*. Hongkong: Hongkong University Press.
- Bolton, K. (2003). *Chinese Englishes: A Sociolinguistic History*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bolton, K. (2008). English in Asia, Asian Englishes, and the issue of proficiency, *English Today*, 24 (2), 3-12.
- Borg, S. (2003a). Knowing and doing: Teaching grammar in in-service training. In D. Liu and P. Master (eds.), *Grammar Teaching in Teacher Education* (pp. 75-87). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Borg, S. (2003b). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teacher think, know, believe and do. *Language Teaching*. 36. 81-109.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice*. London: Continuum.
- Borg, S. (2011). Language teacher education. In Simpson, J (ed). 2011. *The Routledge handbook of applied linguistics*. London: Routledge.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th Ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Bruhn, T. C. (1989). Passages: Life, the universe, and language proficiency assessment. In James E. Altis (ed.) *Language teaching, testing and technology: Lessons from the past with a view toward the future*. Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics.
- Breen, M.P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R., & Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 22, 470-501.
- Butler, Y. G., & Hakuta, K. (2006). Bilingual and second language acquisition. In Bhatia, Tej K & Ritchie, William C (ed), *The handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 109-136). London: Blackwell Publishing, Ltd.

- Canagarajah, S. (2006). Changing communicative needs, revised assessment objectives: Testing English as an international language. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 3(3), 229–242.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Calderhead, J. 1988. The development of knowledge structures in learning to teach. In J. Calderhead (ed.) *Teachers' professional learning*, London: The Falmer Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1966). *Topics in the Theory of Generative Grammar*. Humanities Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1981). *Lectures on government and binding*. Dordrecht: Foris.
- Clark, L. (2007). Cognitive sociolinguistics: A viable approach to variation in linguistic theory. *LACUS Forum*, 33, pp. 105-118.
- Cole F.L. (1988) Content analysis: Process and application. *Clinical Nurse Specialist* 2(1), 53–57
- Coshall, J.T. (2000). Measurement of tourists' images: The repertory grid approach. *Journal Travel Research*. 39, 85-89
- Cook, V. J. (2005). Basing teaching on the L2 user. In Llurda, E. (ed.), *Non-native language teacher: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Cook, V. J. (2010). The relationship between first and second language acquisition revisited. In Macaro, E. (ed.) *The Continuum companion to second language acquisition*. London: Continuum.
- Cook, V. J. (2012). Some Key Issues for SLA research. Retrieved from <http://homepage.ntlworld.com/vivian.c/Writings/Papers/KeyIssues.htm>
- Coffey, A.D. & Atkinson, P. (1996). *Making sense of qualitative data: Complementary research strategies*. London: Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. and Plano Clark V.L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Crotty, M. (2005). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Croft, W. & Curse, D.A. (2004). *Cognitive linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2006). Diversity? We ain't seen nothing yet! Retrieved from <http://www.fipltv.org/WC06/documentation/English/DavidC>

- Cummins, J. (1983). *Heritage language education: A literature review*. Toronto: Ministry of Education.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (1996). The Socio-political aspects of English in Indonesia. *TEFLIN Journal*, 3(1):1-13.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (2000). English teaching in Indonesia. *EA Journal*, 18(1).22-30.
- Dardjowidjojo, S (2001). Cultural constraints in the implementation of learner autonomy: The case in Indonesia. *Journal of Southeast Asian Education*, 2 (2), 309-322.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (2003). The Role of English in Indonesia: A dilemma. In Sukanto, K.E. (ed), *Rampai Bahasa, Pendidikan, dan Budaya: Kumpulan Esai Soenjono Dardjowidjojo*, 41-50. Jakarta: Yayasan Obor Indonesia
- da Silva, M. (2005). Constructing the teaching process from the inside out: How pre-service teachers make sense of their perceptions of the teaching of four skills. *TESL-EJ*, 9, 1-19.
- Davies, A. (2002, September). *Whose language? Choosing a model for our language tests*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Language Testing and Language Teaching, Shanghai.
- Davies, A., Hamp-Lyons, L., & Kemp, C. (2003). Whose norms? International proficiency test in English. *World Englishes*, 22(4), 571–584.
- Davies, A., Hamp-Lyons, L., & Kemp, C. (2008). The Englishes of English tests: Bias revisited *World Englishes*, 27(1), 26–39.
- Dobson, R.L., Dobson, J.E., (1983). Teacher beliefs-practice congruency. *Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning*, 59 (1), 20–27.
- Dornyei, Z. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Down, R.M. (1976). Cognitive mapping and information processing: A commentary: In Moore, G.T. & Colledge, R.G. (eds.). *Environmental knowing: Theories, research, and methods*. Stroudsburg Pa: Dowden, Hutchinson & Ross.
- Ellis, R. (2002). A principled approach to incorporating second language acquisition research into a teacher education programme. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, 9 (1) pp. 1–17
- Elander, J. (2003) Student assessment from a psychological perspective. *Psychology Learning and Teaching*, 3(2): 114–121.
- English Proficiency Rises in Indonesia. (2012, August 23). *Antara News*. Retrieved from <http://www.antaranews.com/en/news/84111/nhamilton@porternovelli.com.au>

- Eraut, M. (1994). *Developing professional knowledge and competence*. London: Falmer Press.
- Fernandez, E.M. & Cairns, H.S. (2011). *Fundamentals of psycholinguistics*. New York: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Field, J. (2003). The fuzzy notion of ‘intelligibility’: A headache for pronunciation teachers and oral testers. *IATEFL Special Interest Groups Newsletter*, 35-38, 2003.
- Foss, D.H. & Kleinsassers, R.C. (1996). Pre-service elementary teachers’ views of pedagogical and mathematical content knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher education*, 12, 429-42.
- Fransella, F. & Bannister, D. (1977). *A manual for repertory grid technique*. London: Academic Press, Inc.
- Freeman, D., & Johnson, K.E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(2), 397-417.
- Gatbonton, E. (1999). Investigating experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *The Modern Language Journal* 83, 35-50.
- Graddol, D. (2001). The future of English. In Burns, A. and Coffin, C. (eds) *Analysing English in a Global Context*. London: Routledge.
- Gobo, G. (2008). *Doing ethnography*. London, United Kingdom: Sage.
- Gordon, R.G., Jr. (ed.) (2005). *Ethnologue: Languages of the World* (15th Ed.). Dallas: SIL International. Retrieved from <http://www.ethnologue.com>.
- Golombek, P.R. (1998). A study of language teachers’ personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 447-64.
- Goldman, S., & McDermott, R. (2007). Staying the course with video analysis. In Goldman, R. Pea, R., Barron, B. & Derry, S. J. (eds.), *Video Research in the Learning Sciences* (pp. 101–114). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hall, G. (2011). *Exploring English language teaching: Language in action*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Halliday, M.A. K. (1973) . *Explorations in the functions of Language*. (*Explorations in Language Study*)_London: Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as social Semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1984). Language as code and language as behaviour: A systemic functional interpretation of the nature and ontogenesis of language. In

- Fawcett, R., Halliday, M.A.K., Lamb, S.M. & Malckai, A. (eds), *The semiotics of culture and language Vol. 1*. London: Frances Printer.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (2003). On the 'architecture' of human language. In the *Collected works of M.A.K. Halliday. On language and linguistics*, 3. Webster, J. (ed.) p. 29.
- Haryanto, E. (2013). Language policy: Administrators and teachers' view on English as medium of instruction implementation in Indonesia. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4 (2), pp. 48-54.
- Heine, B. (1997). *Cognitive foundations of grammar*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Huda, N. (2000). Kedudukan dan fungsi bahasa asing (The Position and Function of Foreign Languages). In Alwi dan D. Sugono, H., *Politik Bahasa: Risalah Seminar Politik Bahasa (Language Politics: Proceedings of the Seminar on Language Politics)*, 59-78. Jakarta: Pusat Bahasa dan Departemen Pendidikan Nasional.
- Huff, A, S. (Ed). (1990). *Mapping strategic thought*. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.
- Hymes, D.H. (1966). Two types of linguistic relativity. In Bright, W. (Ed.) *Sociolinguistics*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Hymes, D.H. (1972). On communicative competence. In Pride, J.B., Holmes, J. (ed.) *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings*. Harmondsworth: Penguin..
- Iyldyz, L.B. (2007). Rethinking validity of the L2 proficiency concept: Lessons for EIL. *Asian EFL Journal*, 9(1), 65-85.
- Jankowicz, D. (2004). *The easy guide to repertory grids*. Queensland: John Willey and Son. Inc.
- Johnson, K. (1996). *Language teaching and skill learning*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Johnson, K.E. (1999). *Understanding language teaching; Reasoning in action*. London: Heinle & Heinle.
- Joshi, P. (2011). ENL, ESL and EFL: The Quest for a Paradigmatic Model. Retrieved from eltvoices.in/Volume1/Issue1/EVI11.1.
- Joshi, P. (2013). International intelligibility in English. *ELT Weekly*, 5(9). Retrieved from <http://eltweekly.com/2013/11/reseach-paper-international>
- Kabir, H. Md. (2011). The role of context in teaching English to the speakers of other languages (TESOL). *IIUC STUDIES*, 7, 25-36.

- Kachru, B. (1992). *The Other Tongue: English across cultures*. University of Illinois Press.
- Kachru, B. (1997). World Englishes 2000: Resources for research and teaching. In Smith, L.E. & Forman, M.L. (eds), *World Englishes: Selected Essays*, Vol. 14, University of Hawaii, pp. 209-251.
- Kachru, B. B. (1986). *The Alchemy of English*. USA: University of Illinois Press.
- Kachru, B. B. & Nelson C. L. (1996). World Englishes. In McKay, S. L. and Hornberger, N. H. (eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kachru, B.B., Yamuna, B., & Nelson, C. L (Eds). (2009). *The handbook of World Englishes*. Malaysia: Willey-Blackwell.
- Kam, H. W. (2004). English language teaching in East Asia today: An overview. In Kam, H.W. & Wong, R.Y.L. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in East Asia Today: Changing Policies and Practices* (2nd Ed.). Singapore: Eastern University Press.
- Kartono, G. (1976). Kedudukan dan fungsi bahasa asing di Indonesia (The status and function of foreign languages in Indonesia). In Halim, A. (Ed). *Politik Bahasa Nasional (National Language Politics)*. Jilid 2. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa
- Kaufman, D., & Aronoff, M. (1991). Morphological disintegration and reconstruction in first language attrition. In Seliger, H.W. & Vago, R.M. (eds.), *First language attrition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Kelly, G.A. (1955). *The psychology of personal constructs, Vols 1 and 2*. Norton, New York.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). *World Englishes: Implications for international communication and English language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Krober, F. (2010). Structuralism, formalism and functionalism: Differences and similarities between three linguistic schools. *Seminar paper*. Norderstedt: Druck und Bindung.
- Kober, N., Chudowsky, N., & Chudowsky, V. (2010). State test score trends through 2008-9, Part 2: Slow and uneven progress in narrowing gaps. Washington, DC: Center on Education Policy.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). *Language teacher education for a global society: A modular model for knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing, and seeing*. New York and London: Routledge.
- Kurz, T. L. (2011). Discovering features of web-based algebraic tools via data analysis support technology integration in mathematics education. *Journal of Curriculum and Instructions*, 5 (1).

- Lamb, M., & Coleman, H. (2008). Literacy in English and transformation of self and society in post-Suharto Indonesia. *The International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 11(2), 189-205.
- Lauder, A. (2008). The status and function of English in Indonesia: A review of key factors. *Makara, Sosial Humaniora*, 12(1), 9-20.
- Lavadenz, M. (2011). From theory to practice for teachers of English learners. *CATESOL*. 22(1), 18-47.
- Lightbown, P. M. and Spada, N. (2006) How languages are learned. (3rd edition) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Leech, N. L & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2007). An array of qualitative data analysis tools: A call for data analysis triangulation. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 22 (4), 557-584. DOI: 10.1037/1045-3830.22.4.557
- Lewis, R. (1997). Learning Styles in Transition: A Study of Indonesian Students. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED421862.pdf>
- Lincoln, Y. S, & Guba, E. A. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Lie, A. (2007). Education policy and ELF curriculum in Indonesia: Between the commitment to competence and the quest for highest test score. *TEFLIN Journal*, 18 (1), 1-14.
- Llurda, E. (2000). On competence, proficiency, and communicative language ability. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10 (1), 85-95.
- Lowenberg, P. H. (2002). Assessing English proficiency in the expanding circle. *World Englishes*, 21(3), 431–435.
- Loewen, S & Reinders, H. (2011). *Key concepts in second language acquisition*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. London: University of Chicago Press.
- Luciana. (2009). Developing standards for language teacher education programs in Indonesia: Professionalizing or losing in complexity? Retrieved from <http://journal.teflin.org/index.php/>
- Maxwell, J.A. (2011). Epistemological heuristics for qualitative research. In Soini, H., Kronquist, E., & Huber, G.L. (Eds.). *Epistemologies for qualitative research*. Tubingen: Centre for Qualitative Psychology.
- Mazzon, G. (2000). The ideology of the standard and the development of extraterritorial Englishes. In Wright, (Ed.), *The development of standard English 1300-1800*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Myhill, D. (2011). Living language, live debate. In Davidson, J., Daly, C., & Moss, J. (Eds.). *Debate in English teaching*. London: Routledge.
- McLaughlin, B. (1990). Restructuring. *Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McKay, S.L. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language: Rethinking goals and approaches*. Oxford University Press.
- McAdams, D. (2006). *The person: A new introduction to personality*. (4th Ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Meijer, P.C. (1999). *Teachers' practical knowledge: Teaching reading comprehension in secondary education*. (Doctoral dissertation). Leiden: University of Leiden.
- Melchers, G & Shaw, P. (2011). *World Englishes*. London: Hodder Education
- Mercer, N. (2001). Language for teaching language. In Candlin, C.N. & Mercer, N. (Eds). *English language teaching in its social context*. London: Routledge.
- Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
- Mewborn, D. S., & Tyminski, A.M. (2006). Lortie's apprenticeship of observation revisited. *For the Learning of Mathematics*. 26, 3
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ministerial Decree no.37 (2009). *Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 37 Tahun 2009 Tentang Dosen*. Retrived from <http://www.dikti.go.id/files/atur/PP37-2009Dosen.pdf>
- Murniati, C.T. (2004). An analysis of Indonesian: English code switching in electronic mails. *Celt*, 4(2), 126-135.
- Mujiono, P., Soepomo., Subroto, E., & Wiranto, T. (2013). Code switching in English as foreign language instruction practiced by the English lecturers at Universities. *International Journal of Linguistics*. 5 (2), 46-65.
- Musthafa, B. (2001). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia: Issues of theoretical assumptions and challenges in the classroom. *Journal of Southeast Asian Education*, 2 (2), 1-9.
- Modupeola, O.R. (2013). Code-switching as a teaching strategy: Implication for English Language teaching and learning in a multilingual society. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 14 (3), 92-94.

- Moussay, G. (1998). *Tata Bahasa Minangkabau*. Jakarta: Perpustakaan Populer Gramedia.
- Newby, D. (2011). Competence and performance in learning and teaching: theories and practices. *Selected papers from 19th ISTAL*. Retrieved from http://www.enl.auth.gr/symposium19/19thpapers/002_Newby.pdf
- Ng, E. K. J., & Farrell, T.S.C. (2003). Do teachers' beliefs of grammar teaching match their classroom practices? A Singapore case study. In Deterding, D., Brown A & Low E L (Eds) *English in Singapore: Research on Grammar*. Singapore : McGraw Hill.
- Nur, C. (2004). English language teaching in Indonesia: Changing policies and practices. In Kam, H.W. & Wong. R.Y.L. (Eds.), *English Language Teaching in East Asia Today: Changing Policies and Practices* (2nd Ed.) Singapore: Eastern University Press.
- Oakeshott, M. (1962). *Rationalism in politics*. London: Methuen.
- O'Dwyer, S. (2006). The English teacher as facilitator and authority. *TESL-EJ*, 9(4), 1-15.
- O'Halloran, K. 2013. *Multimodal analysis video*. Singapore: Multimodal Analysis Company.
- Pearson, J., 1985. Are teachers' beliefs incongruent with their observed classroom behaviour? *Urban Review* 17 (2), 128–146.
- Phillipson, R. (1992), *Linguistic Imperialism*, Oxford University Press.
- Poplack, S. (2000 [1980]). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en español: Toward a typology of code-switching. In Wei, L. (Ed.), *The bilingualism reader*. London / New York: Routledge.
- Prabhu, N.S. (1990). There is no best method. Why? *TESOL Quarterly*. 24 (2), 161-167.
- Quinn, G. (2001). *The Learner's Dictionary of Today's Indonesian*. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.
- Ratcliff, D. (2003). Video methods in qualitative research. In Camic, P.M. Rhodes, J.E. & Yardley, L. (Eds.), *Qualitative research in psychology: Expanding perspectives in methodology and design*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Reagan, T. (2005). *Critical Questions, Critical Perspectives: Language and the Second Language educator*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishers.

- Renandya, W A. (2000). Indonesia. In Ho. W.K. & Wong. R.Y.L. (Eds). *Language Policies and Language Education: The Impact in East Asian Countries in the Next Decade*.(Eds) Singapore: Times Academic Press.
- Richards, J. C. (1996). Teachers' maxims in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(2), 281-296. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3588144>
- Richards, J. & Pennington, M. (1998). The first year of teaching. In Richards, J. (Ed.), *Beyond Training*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C & Rodgers, T.S. (1998). *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. New York: Cambridge Language Education.
- Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S. (2001). *Approach and methods in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. & Schmidt, R. (eds.). (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics* (3rd Ed.). London: Longman.
- Richards, J.C. (2011). *Competence and performance in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C., Gallo, P.B., & Renandya, W.A. (2001). Exploring teachers' beliefs and the processes of change. *The PAC Journal*, 1(1), p.41-62.
- Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2000). Data management and analysis methods. In Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Saldana, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative research*. London: SAGE Publication Ltd.
- Seidlhofer, B. (1999). Double standards: Teacher education in the expanding circle. *World Englishes*, 18 (2) p. 233-245
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge of teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review* 57, 1-22.
- Saville-Troike, M. (2006). *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Sahiruddin. (2013). The implementation of the 2013 curriculum and the issues of English language teaching and learning in Indonesia. *Official conference proceedings in the Asian conference on language learning 2013*, pp. 567-574.
- Simatupang, M. (1999). Bahasa Inggris: Variasi Yang Mana? Suatu Tinjauan Ulang Tentang Status Bahasa Inggris di Indonesia. In Purwo, B.K. (Ed). *PELLBA 12 (Pertemuan Linguistik Lembaga Bahasa Atma Jaya: Kedua Belas)*,. 63-84. Jakarta: Pusat Kajian dan Budaya Unika Atma Jaya.
- Siregar, F.L. (2010). The Language attitudes of students of English literature and D3 English at Maranatha Christian University toward American English, British English and Englishes in Southeast Asia, and their various contexts of use in Indonesia. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 4, 66-92.
- Soames, S. (1984). Linguistics and Psychology. 7: 155-79. Retrieved from <http://www.ugr.es/~perisv/materiales/filosofia-de-la-ling>
- Stern, H.H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford: OUP.
- Stern, H.H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching*. Oxford : Oxford University Press.
- Sundari. (2012). Kemampuan guru Bahasa Inggris SMP memprihatinkan. *Tempo*. Retrieved from <http://www.tempo.co>
- Szecszy, E. (2008). Attitudes toward language diversity. In González, J. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Bilingual Education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. doi <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412963985.n20>
- Tabachnick, B.R. & Zeichner, K.M. (1986). Teacher beliefs and classroom behaviours: Some teacher responses to inconsistency. In Ben-Peretz, M., Bromme, R., Halkes, R. (Eds.), *Advances of Research on Teacher Thinking*. Swets and Zeitlinger, Lisse, Netherlands.
- Tan, Y & Castelli, C. (2013). Intelligibility and attitudes: How American English and Singapore English are perceived around the world. *English World-Wide*. 34 (2), pp. 177-201.
- Taylor, L. (2010). Introduction of IELTS research reports volume 11. Retrieved from http://www.ielts.org/PDF/Vol11_Full_reportB.pdf
- Taylor, D.S. (1988). The meaning and use of the term competence in linguistics and applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 148-169.
- Taylor-Powell, E. (1996). Analysing quantitative data. University of Wisconsin-Extension, Cooperative Extension. Retrieved from <http://cf.uwex.edu/ces/pubs/pdf/G35686>

- Terrill, B.J. & Flitman, A (2002), Using repertory grid analysis to gather qualitative data for information systems research. In *Proceedings of the Thirteenth Australasian Conference on Information Systems (ACIS)*, Melbourne, Australia.
- Tian, L. and Macaro, E. (2012). Comparing the effect of teacher code-switching with English-only explanations on the vocabulary acquisition of Chinese university students: A Lexical focus-on-form study. *Language Teaching Research*.16/3, 361 – 385
- Tommasello, M. (2003). *Constructing a language*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Walcott, W. H. (2007). *Knowledge, competence and communication: Chomsky, Freire, Searle, and communicative language teaching*. Montreal, Canada: Black Rose Books.
- Well, G. (2005). Toward dialogue in the classroom: Learning and teaching through inquiry. *Department of Developmental and Educational Psychology*, 1 (4).
- White, L. (1998). Universal grammar in second language acquisition: The nature of interlanguage representation. Retrieved from <http://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/networks/NW09/white.pdf>
- Whong, M. (2011). *Language teaching: Linguistic theory in practice*. Edinburg: Edinburg University Press.
- Widiati, U., & Cahyono, B.Y. (2006). The teaching of EFL speaking in Indonesian context: The State of the art. *Bahasa dan Seni*, 34(2), 269-310.
- Wood, J.T. (2010). *Interpersonal communication Everyday Encounters* (6th Ed.). Wadsworth: Canada.
- Wright, R. P. (2008). Eliciting cognitions of strategizing using advanced repertory grids in a world constructed and reconstructed. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11, 753-769. Doi: 10.1177/1094428107303353.
- Yuwono, G. (2005). English Language Teaching in Decentralised Indonesia: Voices from the Less Privileged Schools. Paper presented at AARE 2005 International Education. Retrieved from <http://www.aare.edu.au/data/publications/2005/yuw05050>
- Zacharias, N. T. (2003). A survey of tertiary teachers' beliefs about English Language Teaching in Indonesia with regard to the role of English as a global language (Unpublished MA thesis). Assumption University, Bangkok Thailand.
- Zacharias, N.T. (2005). Teachers' beliefs about internationally-published material: A survey of tertiary English teachers in Indonesia. *RELJ Journal*, 36, 23-38.

Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledge.

Appendix 1

The Interview Protocol

Participants were informed that the process of eliciting their constructs was done in two sessions: *Written session* or the repertory grid interview technique was conducted for eliciting the constructs and *verbal session* or the ethnographic interview was conducted for digging more information regarding the constructs and explore the meaning of lived experiences of ‘proficiency in English’.

Explanatory pre-activity was conducted for participants before giving the worksheet by making sure participants familiar with the process for eliciting their constructs. At this stage, they were given an example of how to fill the provided worksheet. A demonstration of doing the Repertory Grid technique was given to each participant so that they became familiar with the triadic method. None of the participants had done Repertory Grid technique before. Therefore, to familiarize themselves with this technique, they had to answer the example questions that were similar to the format of the questions in the worksheet but on a different topic (see figure 1). The details of the activities were:

- The researcher performed to participants directly the example of doing the triadic method by presenting abstract elements: *Love, Hatred, and Jealousy*.

Figure 1: The Sample of Triadic Stage

Could you give more information with respect to the emotions?

A	B	C
LOVE	HATRED	JELOUSY

-

Which two of them do you think have most in common?
... and ...

Why do you think ... and ... are most similar?

And why are they different from ... ?

Then, the researcher gave these questions:

- Which two of them do you think have most in common?
 - Why do you think these two have the most in common?
 - Why do you think ... and ... are different from ...?
- The researcher asked participants to write down the description of their ideas in the space provided on the worksheet.

- After participants were familiar with the process of triadic stage, the researcher administered the worksheet.

During the written session, participants were asked to fill in the worksheet (see figure 2). Participants choose two elements that were the most similar and why they were different from the third. The descriptions of their ideas and opinions were written by participants on the worksheet. Participants were free to write down in either Indonesia or English.

During the verbal session or the ethnographic interview, the researcher presented participants the two constructs that they have written on the worksheets as the most similar and then asked participants the following questions:

- *Which of the descriptions do you think is a better description about 'proficiency in English'?*
 - The researcher showed the participant the [first and the second] descriptions that they have made on the worksheet before
- *Could you comments on why you prefer this description?*
 - This question was given after participants have chosen their preferred description [between the first and the second descriptions].
- *Can you explain what you mean by ...?* [This question was given when their answers were not clear enough]
- *Can you give me an example?*

Figure 2: The Sample of the Worksheet

Worksheet for Triadic Stage		
<p><i>I am very interested in learning more about ‘proficiency in English’ and how it is understood by teacher-trainers. Please share any of your ideas by giving descriptions regarding this topic.</i></p>		
<p>1. Combination 1</p>		
A	B	C
<i>Mastering linguistic competence</i>	<i>Mastering gramatical and sociolinguistic competence</i>	<i>Using English of educated native speaker of the dominant varieties [British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English]</i>
Menguasai kompetensi linguistic	Menguasai kompetensi gramatikal dan sosiolinguistik	Menggunakan Bahasa Inggris penutur asli yang terpelajar dari daerah-daerah yang dominan menggunakan Bahasa Inggris [seperti Inggris, Amerika Serikat, Canada, Australia atau Selandia Baru]
<p><i>Which two of the three definitions regarding ‘proficiency in English’ do you think have most in common?</i></p> <p>Manakah dua dari tiga defenisi diatas yang berkenaan dengan kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris yang menurut anda paling mirip?</p> <p>... and ...</p>		
<p><i>Why do you think ... and ... have the most in common?</i></p> <p>Menurut pendapat anda, mengapa defenisi ... dan... paling mirip?</p> <p style="color: red;">[This answer becomes the first description]</p>		
<p><i>Why do you think ... and ... are different from ...?</i></p> <p>Menurt pendapat anda, mengapa... dan...berbeda dengan...?</p> <p style="color: red;">[This answer becomes the second description]</p>		

Appendix 2

The Questionnaire

Dear Educator,

I am asking you to help me by participating in the following survey which is part of my Ph.D. studies at Curtin University, Perth, Western Australia. I am using this survey to describe what *proficiency in English* means and what its qualities are. Your answers will be useful to help clarify the meaning of *proficiency in English* in the Indonesian context. I have developed five categorised ideas which were extracted from interviews with several teacher-trainers. You are asked to choose the categories and the ideas that are involved in them that represent your perceptions toward *proficiency in English*. You may also add your own opinions in the given spaces. Please feel free to write your answers in Bahasa Indonesia. This questionnaire is not a test, and you do not have to write your name on it. I am only interested in your personal viewpoints, so there are no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ answers. There are three parts, with 15 questions in total. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete this survey. Your survey responses will be kept strictly confidential and the data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate. The results of this survey will be used only for research purposes. If you have questions at any time about the survey or the procedures, you may contact me at +61-421753854 or by email at these e-mail addresses: sriimelwaty@postgrad.curtin.edu.au. This study has been approved by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, No: EDU-53-10. If needed, verification of this approval can be obtained by writing to the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, c/- Office of Research and Development, Curtin University of Technology, GPO Box UI 198, Perth, 6845, Western Australia or by telephoning +61892662784.

Thank you very much for your time and support.

Sri Imelwaty

Yth. Bapak/ Ibu staff pengajar
di Jurusan pendidikan Bahasa Inggris

Dengan hormat,

Melalui surat ini saya mengharapkan partisipasi Bapak dan Ibu untuk mengisi survey ini. Adapun tujuan survey ini adalah untuk mendeskripsikan kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris berdasarkan wawasan Bapak dan Ibu. Jawaban Bapak dan Ibu sangat bermanfaat dalam menegaskan makna kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris menjadi lebih spesifik untuk konteks di Indonesia. Ada lima kategori pendapat yang didapatkan dari hasil wawancara terdahulu dosen atau staf pengajar di jurusan pendidikan Bahasa Inggris. Bapak dan Ibu diminta untuk memilih kategori serta pernyataan yang tercakup didalamnya berdasarkan persepsi Bapak dan Ibu dan kemudian. Bapak menambahkan pendapat yang lain pada bagian yang telah disediakan. Kuesioner ini bukanlah sebuah alat tes dan Bapak dan Ibu tidak harus menuliskan nama di dalamnya. Bapak dan Ibu dipersilakan untuk menuliskan jawaban dalam Bahasa Indonesia. Dalam hal ini, tidak ada jawaban BENAR atau SALAH.

Survey ini terbagi dalam tiga bagian dengan jumlah total 15 pertanyaan. Adapun waktu untuk mengerjakan survey ini adalah kira-kira 15 menit. Jawaban Bapak dan Ibu dalam survey ini akan dirahasiakan dan data penelitian ini hanya akan dilaporkan dalam jumlah totalnya saja. Hasil survey ini hanya akan digunakan untuk tujuan penelitian. Jika Bapak dan ibu ada pertanyaan, silahkan menghubungi peneliti via telepon (+61-421753854), e-mail (sriimelwaty@postgrad.curtin.edu.au), atau langsung menghubungi Ethic Committee Curtin University, Office of Research and Development, Curtin University of Technology, GPO Box UI 198, Perth, 6845, Western Australia atau via telepon +61892662784. Terima kasih atas waktu dan bantuan Bapak dan Ibu

Wasalam

Hormat saya, Sri Imelwaty

Please answer the following questions **proficiency in English** by circling the letters. Please answer all of the questions.

Mohon Anda jawab pertanyaan-pertanyaan tentang **kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris** dengan melingkari huruf yang tersedia. Mohon jawab semua pertanyaan berikut.

Questions / Pertanyaan:

1. *Do you think that proficiency in English involves **knowledge of English language**?*

Menurut pendapat Anda, apakah kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris meliputi **pengetahuan tentang Bahasa Inggris**?

a) No → go to question 3 Tidak → lanjut ke pertanyaan 3	b) Not sure → go to question 3 Tidak yakin → lanjut ke pertanyaan 3	c) Yes → go to question 2 Ya → lanjut ke pertanyaan 2
--	--	--

2. *In your opinion, does **knowledge of English language** include these ideas below? (Please circle all letters that apply)*

Menurut Anda, apakah **pengetahuan tentang Bahasa Inggris** termasuk pendapat dibawah ini? (mohon lingkari semua jawaban yang sesuai menurut pendapat Anda)

a) <i>Knowing prescribed rules of English language use / Mengetahui aturan yang telah ditentukan tentang penggunaan Bahasa Inggris</i>
b) <i>Knowing how to use the prescribed rules of English language in accordance with those prescribed rules / Mengetahui cara</i>

penggunaan aturan Bahasa Inggris yang telah ditentukan itu sesuai dengan aturannya tersebut

- c) *Knowing possible communication orientation purposes* / Mengetahui kemungkinan tujuan komunikasi yang berorientasi
- d) *Knowing how to accomplish the possible communication orientation purposes* / Mengetahui cara menyelesaikan kemungkinan tujuan komunikasi yang berorientasi tersebut
- e) *None of the above* / Tidak ada satupun dari jawaban di atas
- f) *Other (please specify)* / Yang lain (mohon rinci jawaban Anda) _____

3. *Do you think that proficiency in English involves **the ability to use English based on the application of exonormative [English from the dominant varieties- British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English] rules for the use of English language?***

Menurut pendapat Anda, apakah kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris meliputi **kemampuan menggunakan Bahasa Inggris berdasarkan aturan berbahasa Inggris yang telah ditentukan [Bahasa Inggris dari daerah-daerah asal Bahasa Inggris tersebut digunakan seperti Inggris, Amerika Serikat, Australia, Selandia Baru dll.]?**

a) No → go to question 5 Tidak → lanjut ke pertanyaan 5	b) Not sure → go to question 5 Tidak yakin → lanjut ke pertanyaan 5	c) Yes → go to question 4 Ya → lanjut ke pertanyaan 4
--	--	--

4. *In your opinion, does the ability to use English based on the application of exonormative [English from the dominant varieties-British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English] rules for the use of English language include these ideas below? (Please circle all letters that apply)*

Menurut Anda, apakah **kemampuan menggunakan Bahasa Inggris berdasarkan aturan berbahasa Inggris yang telah ditentukan [Bahasa Inggris dari daerah-daerah asal Bahasa Inggris tersebut digunakan seperti Inggris, Amerika Serikat, Australia, Selandia Baru dll.]** termasuk pendapat dibawah ini? (mohon lingkari semua jawaban yang sesuai menurut pendapat Anda)

- a) *Writing by using the prescribed grammatical rules of writing* / Menulis dengan menggunakan aturan penulisan berdasarkan tata bahasa yang telah ditentukan
- b) *Using prescribed academic English of the educated people in academic contexts* / Menggunakan Bahasa Inggris akademis masyarakat terpelajar yang telah ditentukan dalam kontek akademis
- c) *Using L1 English speakers' accents* / Memakai aksen penutur asli Bahasa Inggris
- d) *Using L1 English speakers' dialects* / Memakai dialek penutur asli Bahasa Inggris
- e) *None of the above* / Tidak ada satupun dari jawaban di atas
- f) *Other (please specify)* / Yang lain (mohon rinci jawaban anda) _____

5. *Do you think that proficiency in English involves **adaptation of English use depending on the situation and context**?*
 Menurut pendapat Anda, apakah kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris meliputi **adaptasi penggunaan Bahasa Inggris sesuai dengan situasi dan kontek**?

a) No → go to question 7 Tidak → lanjut ke pertanyaan 7	b) Not sure → go to question 7 Tidak yakin → lanjut ke pertanyaan 7	c) Yes → go to question 6 Ya → lanjut ke pertanyaan 6
--	--	--

6. *In your opinion, does **adaptation of English use depending on the situation and context** include these ideas below? (Please circle all letters that apply)*
 Menurut Anda, apakah **adaptasi penggunaan Bahasa Inggris sesuai dengan situasi dan kontek** termasuk pendapat dibawah ini?
 (mohon lingkari semua jawaban yang sesuai menurut pendapat Anda)

- a) *Using standardised or formal English in formal situations* / Menggunakan Bahasa Inggris yang standar atau formal untuk situasi yang resmi
- b) *Using non-standardised or non-formal English for informal situations* / Menggunakan Bahasa Inggris yang tidak standar atau tidak formal untuk situasi yang tidak resmi
- c) *None of the above* / Tidak ada satupun dari jawaban di atas
- d) *Other (please specify)* / Yang lain (mohon rinci jawaban anda) _____

7. *Do you think that proficiency in English involves **the ability to communicate with English users from different cultures**?*

Menurut pendapat Anda, apakah kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris meliputi **kemampuan berkomunikasi dengan pemakai Bahasa Inggris yang memiliki budaya berbeda**?

a) No → go to question 9 Tidak → lanjut ke pertanyaan 9	b) Not sure → go to question 9 Tidak yakin → lanjut ke pertanyaan 9	c) Yes → go to question 8 Ya → lanjut ke pertanyaan 8
--	--	--

8. *In your opinion, does **the ability to communicate with English users from different cultures** include these ideas below? (Please circle all letters that apply)*

Menurut Anda, apakah **kemampuan berkomunikasi dengan pemakai Bahasa Inggris yang memiliki budaya berbeda** termasuk pendapat dibawah ini? (mohon lingkari semua jawaban yang sesuai menurut pendapat Anda)

a) <i>Exchanging of information or sharing of ideas with L1 English speakers</i> / Tukar menukar informasi atau berbagi pendapat dengan penutur asli Bahasa Inggris
b) <i>Exchanging of information or sharing of ideas with non- L1 English speakers</i> / Tukar menukar informasi atau berbagi pendapat

dengan yang penutur asing Bahasa Inggris

- c) *Using exonormative forms of English [English from the dominant varieties- British, American, Canadian, Australian or New Zealand English] in their place* / Menggunakan kaidah-kaidah Bahasa Inggris Exonormatif [Bahasa Inggris dari daerah-daerah yang dominan menggunakan Bahasa Inggris seperti Inggris Raya, Amerika, Canada, Australia atau Selandia Baru] di tempatnya
- d) *Using endonormative forms of English [English from the local varieties in Europe, Africa and Asia -eg. Nigerian English, Chinese English, Indian English, Singapore English, etc.] in their place* / Menggunakan kaidah-kaidah Bahasa Inggris endonormatif [Bahasa Inggris yang tumbuh dan berkembang di daerah-daerah kawasan Eropa, Afrika dan Asia misalnya Nigerian English, Chinese English, Indian English, Singapore English, dan lain-lain] di tempatnya
- e) *None of the above* / Tidak ada satupun dari jawaban di atas
- f) *Other (please specify)* / Yang lain (mohon rinci jawaban anda) _____

9. *Do you think that proficiency in English requires **intelligibility**?*

Menurut pendapat Anda, apakah kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris membutuhkan **kejelasan atau dapat dimengerti**?

a) No Tidak → Lanjut ke pertanyaan 11	b) Not sure Tidak yakin → lanjut ke pertanyaan 11	c) Yes Ya → lanjut ke pertanyaan 10
--	--	--

10. *In your opinion, does **intelligibility** include these ideas below? (Please circle all letters that apply)*

Menurut Anda, apakah **kejelasan atau dapat dimengerti tersebut** termasuk pendapat dibawah ini? (mohon lingkari semua jawaban yang sesuai menurut pendapat Anda)

- a) *Uttering understandable utterances* / Mengucapkan tuturan yang dapat dimengerti
- b) *Uttering meaningful ideas* / Menuturkan pendapat yang memiliki makna
- c) *Accepting spoken English that does not following prescribed rules as long as the meaning is understood* / Menerima Bahasa Inggris lisan yang tidak mengikuti aturan yang telah ditentukan selama maknanya masih dapat dimengerti
- d) *Demonstrating appropriate responses to inaccurate sentence structures in spoken English* / Pemberian respon yang sesuai terhadap Bahasa Inggris lisan yang tidak berdasarkan tata bahasa tersebut
- e) *None of the above* / Tidak ada satupun dari jawaban di atas
- f) *Other (please specify)* / Yang lain (mohon rinci jawaban anda) _____

11. *Do you think that proficiency in English involves **communication of the English users' identities across cultures**?*

Menurut pendapat Anda, apakah kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris meliputi **komunikasi identitas pemakai Bahasa Inggris antar lintas budaya**?

a) No → go to question 13 Tidak → lanjut ke pertanyaan 13	b) Not sure → go to question 13 Tidak yakin → lanjut ke pertanyaan 13	c) Yes → go to question 12 Ya → lanjut ke pertanyaan 12
--	--	--

12. *In your opinion, does **communication of the English users' identities across cultures** include these ideas below? (Please circle all letters that apply)*

Menurut Anda, apakah **komunikasi identitas pemakai Bahasa Inggris antar lintas budaya** termasuk pendapat dibawah ini? (mohon lingkari semua jawaban yang sesuai menurut pendapat Anda)

- a) *Knowing the influences of different local culture on English forms* / Mengetahui pengaruh budaya lokal terhadap format Bahasa Inggris
- b) *Knowing the existence of English varieties in non- English speaking countries* / Mengetahui keberadaan variasi Bahasa Inggris di negara-negara yang tidak menggunakan Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa pertamanya
- c) *Knowing the existence of English varieties in English speaking countries* / Mengetahui keberadaan variasi Bahasa Inggris di negara-negara yang menggunakan Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa pertamanya
- d) *Incorporating first language norms and speech in English use* / Memasukkan aturan bahasa ibu atau bahasa pertama dan tuturannya

dalam penggunaan Bahasa Inggris

- e) *Using local accent when speaking* / Menggunakan aksen lokal dalam bertutur kata dalam Bahasa Inggris
- f) *None of the above* / Tidak ada satupun dari jawaban di atas
- g) *Other (please specify)* / Yang lain (mohon rinci jawaban anda) _____

Part II

Please answer the following question / Mohon dijawab pertanyaan berikut ini

1. *Would you like to add any other ideas about proficiency in English, especially in an Indonesian context? (Please circle your answer)*

Apakah Anda ingin menambahkan hal-hal lainnya tentang kecakapan dalam Bahasa Inggris khususnya dalam konteks di Indonesia?
(Silahkan melingkari jawaban berikut ini)

- a) No / Tidak
- b) Yes, (please specify) / Ya (mohon rinci jawaban anda)

Part III

Please provide the following demographic information by circling one of the letters and write your answer in the given space.

Mohon berikan informasi dengan melingkari huruf dan tuliskan jawaban Anda pada tempat yang telah disediakan.

1. *Experience as English teacher-trainers/ Pengalaman sebagai staf pengajar di Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris*
 - a) *1-4 years / 1-4 tahun*
 - b) *5-10 years / 5-10 tahun*
 - c) *more than 10 years / lebih dari 10 tahun*
 - d) *prefer not to answer / tidak menjawab*

2. *What is the highest level of education you have completed?/ Apa kualifikasi pendidikan tertinggi Anda?*
 - a) *Bachelor degree / Sarjana*
 - b) *Master's degree / Magister*
 - c) *Doctoral degree / Doktor*
 - d) *Prefer not to answer / Tidak menjawab*

Thank you for your cooperation!
Terima kasih atas kerjasama Bapak dan Ibu!